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# Decanal work: Using role theory and the sociology of time to study the executive behavior of college of education deans

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**Decanal work: Using role theory and the sociology of time to study the executive behavior of  
college of education deans**

**by**

**Jerlando F. L. Jackson**

**A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**Major: Education (Higher Education)**

**Major Professors: Walter H. Gmelch and Daniel C. Robinson**

**Iowa State University**

**Ames, Iowa**

**2000**

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to the trailblazers of my family whose unselfish support and love throughout my life made this opportunity possible for me: Bertha Mae and Minor Louis (Sonny Boy) Cushion; Queen Ester Hudson and Lucious Cushion; Aretha and Will Jackson; and Dorothy and Jerry Jackson. To you all, I dedicate this research project and my Ph.D. degree, for it is just as much yours, as it is mine.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was: (1) to generate an understanding of the daily administrative processes (activities) of the college of education dean; and (2) to generate a theory based on the delineated roles of the dean as it relates to the executive behavior of the position during the work day. Upon the collection of data determining the dean's executive behavior a comparative analysis using role theory between the dean's executive roles and executive roles found by Mintzberg (1973) was provided. The roles were then aggregated to form the executive behavior of academic deans. In conjunction, the purpose was to present the literature concerning the academic deanship, and glean from the literature and data a more complete picture of the work (everyday life) of the dean.

Qualitative and quantitative methodologies were both employed in this research. A field study methodology borrowed from the discipline of anthropology was used to collect structured (quantitative) and unstructured observation (qualitative) data on four college of education deans. The specific methods emphasized are structured observations, and unstructured observations. The structured data were collected in one area: chronology records. The chronology record was designed to provide basic data on the design of the work day and to provide a reference to the field notes.

After undertaking the data analysis of each kind of activity for this study Mintzberg's roles were reaffirmed; however, additional roles were added and categorized to accommodate the specific activities of academic deans. It must be noted that the new set of roles do not represent criticism of Mintzberg's theory, but rather use it as a foundation to advance executive

behavioral theory. Moreover, this view of executive roles presented is one among many possible views. The delineation of these roles is a categorization of deans' work days broken down with the use of activity analysis.

To support the academic executive behavioral theory presented, it was necessary to describe rigorously the activities of academic deans. The primary focus was to recount the activities the deans were observed performing, and secondarily to offer suggestions on why these activities occurred. To achieve this lofty task, much data was presented. During the four weeks, 13 types of activities were categorized and a total of 959 records were collected. Therefore, tables and pie charts coupled with textual explanations were used to express the meaning of the data. Furthermore, to provide a theoretical grounding to guide the analysis of the data, the sociology of time was employed. The overarching findings from both sets of data demonstrate that academic deans adhere closely to Mintzberg's executive behavioral theory.



## CHAPTER I

### THE NEED TO STUDY WHAT ACADEMIC DEANS DO

What does an academic dean do in the administration of the college uniquely specific to the position? Or more specifically to this inquiry, what does a dean in a school or college of education do? How is the dean's time spent? What roles does the dean assume? These and a number of other questions could be queried to any individual or group within the academy (i.e., board members and faculty) as well as students and parents. It is highly likely that the responses will vary tremendously between the aforementioned constituents. Most people will have a segmented or distorted idea of the dean's work because they arrive at their assumptions based on limited contacts with the dean (Anderson, 1997; Bowker & Lynch, 1985; Dupont, 1956; Mobberley & Wicke, 1962; Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

To alleviate further confusion, one might decide to approach the dean for this information. Since you are seeking definitive job duties, logically one might think to request a job description. Quickly you will find out that a true job description does not exist (Dibden, 1968; Friley, 1928; Gould, 1964). Then two questions come to mind: (1) is it possible to quantify what the dean does to arrive at a useful job description?; and (2) or is it that we just do not know what they really do? These questions have been long-standing dilemmas since the development of the dean's position (Eliot, 1908; Hawkes & Hawkes, 1945; Milner, 1936; Ward, 1934).

The dean's authority is formally derived from two sources: institutional and residual (Gould, 1964; Griffiths, 1980; Hilosky & Watwood, 1997; Ryan, 1980; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). The institutional source is characterized through the state laws, rules, and regulations of

the board of trustees (board of regents) that outline the responsibilities, powers, and duties of the dean. The university regulation of Iowa State University serves as an example:

The dean of the college is the chief administrative officer for the college and is responsible to the president through the provost. The dean recommends the appointment of heads or chairs of departments to the president after consultation with the department staff, submits the departmental budgets to the president, supervises the registration and the progress of students in the college and recommends them for the baccalaureate degree, and represents the college in all official business. Each dean is responsible for the administration of both the academic program and the research program of the college, the latter including a college research station or institute. The deans are appointed by the president with the approval of the Board of Regents. (Iowa State University Faculty Handbook, 1997, p. 9)

The residual source is characterized by the power and respect bestowed on the dean by the faculty. This is usually because the dean comes from faculty ranks (Austin, Ahearn, & English, 1997; Dearing, 1963; Gould, 1964; Moore, 1983; Sagaria, 1982). Moving up the ranks is signified by being promoted from instructor to assistant, associate, and ultimately full professor. During the course of this rigorous journey the incumbent would have more than likely held administrative post (i.e., department chairperson, assistant dean, and associate dean) (Enarson, 1968; Morris, 1981; Sagaria, 1988; Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

Descriptions detailed in the university regulations on the nature of the deanship do not serve as an accurate job description (Dibden, 1968; Dill, 1980; Friley, 1928; Griffiths, 1980). In reality, the dean will do far more than any regulation might prescribe (Gould, 1964; Simpson, 1996). Furthermore, the job description and scope of the dean's power will be dependent upon the type of institution (i.e., research, doctoral granting, master's granting, public, or private) where he or she is employed (Corson, 1960; Griffiths, 1980; Ryan, 1980). "There is no such thing as a standardized dean. There is a dean of this and that college, but I

have never seen any two deans who could exchange places and retain the same duties” (Hawkes & Hawkes, 1945, p. 245). Examining the literature, this statement appears to still be true today.

During the course of this inquiry several quotations emerged that eloquently described the impetus for this study. The foremost thought is “Knowledge of our duties is the most essential part of the philosophy of life. If you escape duty you avoid action. The world demands results” by George W. Goethals (as cited in Bolander, 1987, p. 88). This quotation provided the fuel to begin the initial inquiry. The second quote is “the more we study the more we discover our ignorance” by Francis Bacon (as cited in Bolander, 1987, p. 229). This thought surfaced after finally posing the question of what the dean actually does? Then it became quite apparent that to give this subject its due, an in-depth look at the dean’s position would be needed. The following quote by Francois De La Rochefoucauld transmits this message: “ In all professions each affects a look and an exterior to appear what he wishes the world to believe that he is. Thus we say that the whole world is made up of appearances” (as cited in Bolander, 1987, p. 194).

The enormous responsibility of leading the formal organization and administration of the college of education falls on the dean; this organization continues to become larger and more complex (Clark & Guba, 1980; Culbertson, 1980; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). The activities of the dean ranges from faculty development (Gray, Adam, Froh, & Yonai, 1994) to obtaining external financial support (Hall, 1993; Sivage, Bryson, & Okum, 1982). Now more than ever, we must be able to understand the work of academic deans and the academy as a whole, so that incumbents may benefit from the research allowing us to train potential deans. One reason for this urgency is because of the increased accountability placed on colleges and universities by taxpayers (Gould, 1964; Riggs & Huffman, 1989). Taxpayers are demanding that colleges and universities operate efficiently and deliver on their mission statements.

Since its inception, we have witnessed the academy move toward formalized assessment, increased accountability, strategic planning, and institutional research (Hoving, Woodruff, & Mussachia, 1989; Kinnick, 1994). Yet, if one looks for a description of the dean's work they are led to the following statements: (1) responsible for development and implementation of educational, research, and service programs of the college, (2) chief administrative and budgetary officer of the college and reports directly to the senior vice president and provost, (3) guides the college of education to new levels of academic excellence and innovation, and (4) provides aggressive leadership in all areas of academic planning (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1998-1999; Black Issues in Higher Education, 1998-1999). These are the general descriptors used when advertising for the dean's position.

After searching through the last academic year (1998-1999) of the Chronicle of Higher Education and Black Issues in Higher Education, a comprehensive and representative job advertisement was gleaned. Since this is the only information or job description most incumbent deans have to guide them in their work, it is treated as such:

The State University is seeking candidates for the position of Dean of the College of Education. The Dean serves as principal academic leader and Chief Executive Officer of the College and reports directly to the Executive Vice President and Provost of the University. The Dean is responsible for planning, budgeting, implementation, fund-raising, and for the quality of teaching, research, service and outreach.

The position requires an individual who can lead effectively and manage a large and complex college in a comprehensive University setting. Candidates should have significant academic achievement in a field of study commonly included in a college of education with credentials appropriate for a tenured appointment at the rank of professor. Successful candidates will be expected to manifest:

1. Ability to work collaboratively with faculty, College and University administrators, school staff, alumni and an External Board of Advisers.
2. Ability to be a strong advocate for the College in campus, state and national settings.
3. Commitment to and knowledge of teacher education and the broad range of professional education programs across the life span.
4. Demonstrated commitment to diversity of faculty, staff, students and programs.
5. Effectiveness in fund raising.
6. Demonstrated ability to provide leadership in strategic planning, program and personnel assessment, budget management, and technology in administration, teaching and learning.
7. High energy level and excellent interpersonal and communication skills.
8. Commitment to university philosophy and the integration of teaching, research and service.

Words such as planning, budgeting, implementation, and quality are frequently used to describe what deans should do. Other characteristics a potential dean should possess are the ability to lead effectively, manage, work collaboratively, and be committed. Most of these words have been defined only superficially, without a clear connection with the dean's actual work (Griffiths, 1980; Martin & Samels, 1997; Milner, 1936).

Given the information available, there can be little growth in the art of the deanship until there is an adequate and realistic description of the dean's work. Can the dean be successful if he or she sets out to "plan" and "collaborate?" As long as the dean's work is based on generalities and assumptions, the organization and administration of the colleges must be questioned. Ironically, data are available on the dean's salaries (Dill, 1980), level of education (Cyphert & Zimpher, 1980), characteristics (Gould, 1964), and prior experiences (Moore, 1983; Moore & Sagaria, 1982), but nothing in reference to the dean's actual work. Developing an understanding of the dean's work is not only critical for the individual occupying the position, but the students, college, and university for which the dean serves.

Based on these preliminary observations, the duties, responsibilities, and roles of the dean appear to be self-determined from the job advertisement and university regulations. However, the previous discussion suggests that these two documents (job advertisements and university regulations) do not specify the daily activities of the dean. Even though there is a generous literature base on the academic deanship, very little speaks directly to detailing the work of the dean (Gould, 1964; Milner, 1936). Researchers and practitioners have studied and commented on the personal and professional requirements expected of the dean (Gould, 1964; Marchese & Lawrence, 1987; Mottram, 1983), the historical development of the position (Dibden, 1968; Dupont, 1956; Martin & Samels, 1997; Milner, 1936), interaction of the dean and other constituents of the university (Bowker & Lynch, 1985; Mayhew, 1957; Pincus, 1994; Tucker & Bryan, 1991), and the tasks and functions of the position (Barnes, 1996; Dupont, 1956; Gould, 1964; Milner, 1936; Ptersdorf, 1997).

A study of the structure and content of the dean's work was needed to clarify the executive behavior of the deanship. The approach of this investigation was to consider the dean as a social position in the college of education and utilize role theory. In studying the executive behavior of academic deans in the college of education, various reference points were considered. They are: (1) individual behavior (acts of the academic dean); (2) organizational behavior (events occurring within the college); (3) environmental events (events occurring with the university); and (4) the interactions of 1,2, and 3 (Shartle, 1958).

Role theory concerns one of the most important features of social life: characteristic behavior patterns, or roles. It explains roles by presuming that persons are members of social positions, which have expectations for their behavior imposed by others and themselves (Biddle, 1986). Simply put, persons in identical positions should exhibit similar behavior. A social position is a position designated by a title or term that is familiar to persons in the subject population. The subject population is the population of the organization in which the social position interacts. More specifically, role theory is a science concerned with the study of behaviors that are characteristics of persons within contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviors (Biddle, 1979, p. 4).

#### Research Questions

To address this problem fully an investigation would have required a research team to investigate the position in the college of education environment over an extended period of time. However, the aim of this study was to investigate the executive behavior of the dean's position within the college of education within a narrow period of time and with a limited number of subjects. Upon the collection of data determining the dean's executive behavior a comparative analysis using role theory between the dean's executive roles and executive roles found by Mintzberg (1973) was provided. The roles were then aggregated to form the executive behavior of academic deans. In conjunction, the purpose was to present the literature concerning the academic deanship, and glean from this literature and data a more complete

picture of the work (everyday life) of the dean. The research questions succinctly stated are: (1) to generate an understanding of the daily administrative processes (activities) of the college of education dean by delineating roles; and (2) to generate a theory based on the dean's roles as it relates to the executive behavior of the position during the traditional work day.

Qualitative and quantitative methodologies were employed in this research. A field study methodology borrowed from the discipline of anthropology was used to collect structured (quantitative) and unstructured observation (qualitative) data. Characteristically, anthropological fieldwork (ethnography) involves a long stay among subjects to enable the researcher to arrive at a complete understanding of its subjects and their environment (Vidich & Lyman, 1994). Both of these approaches yielded inductive data about the dean's work, thus providing systematic patterns of routine behavior (Coladarci, 1980; Vidich & Lyman, 1994). Field study methods of anthropology were an appropriate methodology, since the incomplete picture and knowledge of the academic dean's work existed. The specific methods emphasized were structured observations, and unstructured observations.

#### Rationale for the Study

The actual question of "what does a dean do in his [or her] official capacity?" was posed as early as 1964 by Earl J. McGrath in the foreword of The Academic Deanship (Gould, 1964). A few years later Dibden wrote in reference to this subject "empirical reports on how deans actually spend their time lend support to the remark of the late Dean DeVane of Yale that 'often one can only say that a dean is one who performs decanal duties'" (1968, p. vi). Surprisingly, systematic research on the executive behavior associated with the academic deanship is still lacking from studies in higher education (Dejnozka, 1978; Dill, 1980). Ryan (1980) noted that administrative roles have been studied more comprehensively in other institutional settings (i.e., business and public administration). As a result, the deanship deserves more investigation, however, like in many other arenas more research attention is placed on the executive behavior of presidents (Dill, 1980). Therefore, placing academic deans

in the same predicament “like middle-management positions in most institutions, an amorphous, variegated, perhaps ultimately indescribable role” (Dill, 1980, p. 262).

### Description of the Research

The research reported in the following pages attempts to understand the executive behavior of the dean. This was achieved through comparison of incumbents of the deanship position in the college of education at four universities. The use of a structured field study design was employed to investigate and compare the deans' behavior. Furthermore, non-participant observational data was collected to document systematic patterns of behavior, and subjective interpretations of the college of education deanship was obtained through unstructured observations. Examples of observed events are reported as well. The results of this study are reported in the following manner:

Chapter II. Review of the Literature. Traces the literature about the academic deanship. Discussion of the literature is organized in themes and discussed accordingly.

Chapter III. Methods and Procedures. Details the selection of the sample (subjects), the process of observing subjects, and the construction of two frameworks for the recording and coding of data.

Chapter IV. Presentation and Analysis of the Qualitative Data. Comparisons and contrasts between findings of the dean's behavior and executive behavior are outlined. The results help determine if the roles of academic deans adhere to executive roles or whether their behavior merits different roles.

Chapter V. Presentation and Analysis of the Quantitative Data. Reports in the forms of displays, analysis, and interpretation of the data gathered. A number of conclusions are proposed to form an adequate description of actual procedures of the dean's work.

Chapter VI. Summary , Conclusions, and Implications. Basic research findings are summarized and implications of the research for deans, the college, the university, and researchers are provided.



### Significance of the Research

The intent of this undertaking was to provide an interpretation of the dean's behavior during his or her work day in the college for which they serve, by delineating roles from their daily activities. The incomplete knowledge surrounding the content and structure of the dean's work provided justification for this study. Developing an understanding of what deans do, and why, will help search committees identify incumbents with congruent skills and expertise to fit the nature of the dean's position. Also, identified skills needed will serve as outstanding tools for training and development for individuals interested in seeking an academic deanship, and may provide further enlightenment for individuals presently serving as deans.

### Limitations of the Study

An important limitation of this study is the use of only college of education deans. An argument is made within the study expressing why the findings may apply to all academic deans; however, until the findings are tested with deans of other colleges no definitive statements can be made in this regard. A second limitation is the study focused only on research universities. The findings may apply to deans of other colleges and institutional types, but they will be biased toward deans that fit these two parameters. A third limitation is the limited observational time of a week. Due to time constraints, each dean could not be observed for a full academic year. Therefore, the findings represent isolated weeks of each dean's academic year. A fourth limitation is the academic executive behavioral theory only captures the work day and not the extended hours work of the deans. The data collection process for the extended hours chronology record was not standardized, it was a self report. Thus, those findings were not integrated into the theory.

### Definition of Key Terms

College, or School (these two terms will be used interchangeably in this study). The following provides a description of its usage in this study:

Colleges and schools consist of a specific group of academic departments or programs

that have a rationale for being placed together, although the rationale may vary from one institution to another. In most instances, they are grouped together if their academic disciplines are directly or indirectly related. A department or program, however, that seems to have no disciplinary relationship with any other may be included in a group consisting of related departments rather than allowed to be independent and deanless. (Tucker & Bryan, 1991, p. x)

**Content.** All that is dealt with in the course of a work day.

**Dean.** The head of an academic unit, division, college, or school of a university.

**The dean's work.** (1). The structure and content of the everyday activities of the dean's work-related life; and (2). The academic dean's executive behavior.

**Decanal.** Of a dean or deanery.

**Executive behavior.** The ways in which an executive behaves or acts; conduct; manners.

**Role theory.** The study of behaviors that are characteristic of persons within the contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviors.

**Structure.** The arrangement or interrelation of all the parts, manner of organization, or construction of a work day.

## CHAPTER II

### THE ACADEMIC DEANSHIP IN THE LITERATURE

The legal provisions provided by the university regulations for the position of the academic deanship presented in Chapter I did not adequately clarify the nature of the dean's work. Neither did the job advertisement used to hire and select academic deans provide further insight into the work of the dean. More specifically, it did not describe the structure and content of the academic dean's work-related activities. In essence the dean is described as "the man in the middle who is both wielder of institutional authority and sustainer of academic concerns" (Dibden, 1968, p. x), which alludes to the whole notion that the academic deanship is a position in search of an identity.

The literature on the academic deanship was reviewed for clarification of the characteristics of everyday life for their work performed in colleges and schools since their inception in the academy. Certain types of deans were not examined; the focus was on deans heading academic units. Consequently, information on the dean of students, graduate college deans, continuing education deans, certain aspects of community college deans, deans of instruction, and library science deans are not included in this review.

The actual question of "what does a dean do in his [or her] official capacity?" was posed as early as 1964 by Earl J. McGrath in the foreword of The Academic Deanship (Gould, 1964). A few years later Dibden wrote in reference to this subject "empirical reports on how deans actually spend their time lend support to the remark of the late Dean DeVane of Yale that 'often one can only say that a dean is one who performs decanal duties'" (1968, p. vi). Surprisingly, systematic research on the executive behavior associated with the academic

deanship is still lacking from studies in higher education (Dejnoska, 1978; Dill, 1980). Ryan (1980) noted that administrative roles have been studied more comprehensively in other institutional settings (i.e., business and public administration). As a result, the deanship deserves more investigation; however, like in many other arenas more research attention is placed on the executive behavior of presidents (Dill, 1980). Therefore, placing academic deans in the same predicament “like middle-management positions in most institutions, an amorphous, variegated, perhaps ultimately indescribable role” (Dill, 1980, p. 262).

The literature is more concerned with general speculations regarding the functions of the academic deanship than with actual descriptions of their work. The research covers a very broad span, inquires into the selection of deans to the effects of stress on the dean have been investigated for their findings. Therefore, since the literature is sparse, it has been organized into theme areas to provide a meaningful review. Lastly, the purpose of this chapter is to present a purposeful and comprehensive review of the literature, glean any executive administrative behavior for the academic deanship, and highlight executive behavior from the private sector.

### **The Historical Development of the Academic Dean Position**

The term or title “dean” was derived from the latin term “decanus,” which was a military officer status in the roman army meaning “set over ten people” (DeVane, 1968; Milner, 1936). The military designation eventually disappeared; however, it reappeared in the monasteries later. In the monastery the “decanus” was the chief monk who monitored ten monks (DeVane, 1968; Mobberley & Wicke, 1962). Senior monks were head of the monastic community in the absence of the abbot. “The deans in the monasteries carried administrative, disciplinary, and spiritual responsibilities” (Milner, 1936, p. 17). It is interesting to note here the similarity of the “decanus” to academic deans.

Oxford and Cambridge universities borrowed the monastatic term when they introduced the title dean in their colleges. This was not unusual since both of these colleges were

subdivisions of the church (Mobberley & Wicke, 1962). These early deans were “appointed to supervise the conduct and studies of the junior members, to maintain discipline among them, to present them for graduation, and to preside at the disputation of scholars” (Milner, 1936, p. 18).

In the United States the deanship dates back to the medieval American college or university in the 1860s (Dibden, 1968). At that time, only four administrative positions existed; however, most universities were not as large as they are today. There is some discrepancy in the literature on when the first dean was appointed. Dill (1980) wrote: “Harvard named a dean for its medical school in 1864 with the chief function of maintaining ‘friendly and charitable intercourse with the students,’ and within five years there was a dean of the college faculty and talk of a law school dean” (p. 262). Contrastingly, Martin and Samels (1997) wrote: “In 1870, Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard, appointed the institution’s - and American higher education’s - first dean to relieve him of some portion of the college’s ‘administration’” (p. 3). This date was also reported by several other scholars (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958; Corson, 1960). A consensus does exist on where the first dean was appointed (Harvard University) and who made the appointment (Charles Eliot).

The following passage describes why President Eliot of Harvard created the office of the dean:

The discussion which preceded and accompanied the last election of President of the University showed clearly that both Governors and the Alumni thought that the President had too much to do, and that he should be relieved of the immediate charge of the College administration. (Ward, 1934, pp. 17-18)

After adoption of the new statute the office of dean was established.

During this time initial deans at other campuses were being appointed as “secretaries” to the faculty. However, Eliot had a different vision for the dean’s position (Martin & Samels, 1997). Eliot proposed that “in most cases [the dean] is also a professor and an active teacher,

who gives part of his time to administrative work” (Eliot, 1908, pp. 243–44). Eliot listed in his first annual report to be presented to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College the place and function of the dean in the American college:

It is the Dean’s duty to preside at the meetings of the Faculty in the absence of the President; to administer the discipline of the College; to take charge of all petitions from undergraduates to the Faculty; to keep the records of admission and matriculation; to furnish such lists of students as may be required by the faculty or the several teachers; to prepare all scales of scholarship; and preserve the records of conduct and attendance; to submit each year to the Faculty lists of persons to be recommended for scholarships and beneficiary aid, and likewise a list of those who appear, from the returns made to his office, to have complied with all regular conditions for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; and in general to superintend the clerical and administrative business of the College. (Eliot, 1908, pp. 242-245)

As you can see, the dean initially was to be all things to all people. The nature of the deanship changed as universities grew and became more complex (Corson, 1960; Hawkes & Hawkes, 1945; Martin & Samels, 1997). Some speculate that the deanship should have come earlier, but it did not because presidents felt they could handle all administrative affairs (Gould, 1964).

Several universities followed suit by developing dean’s positions (i.e., Lincoln, Syracuse, Fisk, Howard, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, Southern California, and Marquette) (Dill, 1980). Fewer than 20 percent of colleges had named deans by 1900 (Ward, 1934). Not all of these deans had been given the responsibilities outlined by Eliot, but some assumed secretarial-type roles as noted earlier (Dupont, 1968). “Over the course of the first half of the twentieth century, academic deans gradually came to function as second in command to the president, assuming authority for all areas of institutional operation in his or her absence” (Martin & Samels, 1997, p. 4). The position of the dean had “arrived” by 1960. Salmen (1971) professed them to be the most important group of administrators in the whole of higher education, for

they are the officers who must translate the aspirations of teachers into an organized program which will fall within the necessities of the budget. Today, the majority of schools and colleges at universities have an academic dean at the helm.

### **The Academic Dean's Position**

The academic deanship has grown to become a diverse group of titles. A varied array of dean titles exists (i.e., deans of school, deans of colleges, and deans of administration) (Bryan, 1980; Corson, 1960; Dill, 1980; Friley, 1928; Gould, 1964). The diversity is not only present in the titles, but also in the attributes of the units for which the dean heads. One must consider the various types of colleges, size, level of control, locations, traditions, needs, and personnel to truly understand the variety that exists among academic deans (Dill, 1980; Gould, 1964; Griffiths, 1980). This impressively diverse group of deans provide major contributions in reference to determining the direction, definitiveness, and smoothness of the educational process, and as a result its progress (Gould, 1964). Understanding the complexity of this position, the following quotations indicate explicitly why it is difficult to find job descriptions or research detailing the daily activities of the dean:

In attempting to outline the place of the Dean in the administrative organization of the college I am fully aware that no sketch of his work would be entirely acceptable to everyone, nor would it fit into every school. (Friley, 1928, p. 5)

There are institutions which have never defined in writing the duties of any officer, notably the older colleges of the East, believing that such definitions hinders rather than helps in administration. (Friley, 1928, p. 6)

### **Changing Careers**

Assuming the position of the deanship is seen as changing careers (Koch, 1968). Some have put it more negatively, stating that "leaving the professorship to enter the ranks of academic administration is to forgo the *vita contemplativa* for the *vita activa*; it is to fly in the

face of training they have received in graduate school and to set aside the value systems they were taught by their graduate professors” (Tucker & Bryan, 1991, p. 6). Often incumbents will be asked the following question: “You’ve been successful in research and teaching, as a professor; why would you now want to change careers?” (Martin, 1988, p. 1). However, others view the work of the academy (university’s business) as the work of the intellectual, this believing that faculty and administrators share the same work and career (Koch, 1964). Thus supporting the whole notion of the “first among equals” concept and that administrators should come from the ranks of faculty (Martin, 1988). The following quote provides insight into the belief system that has guided the academy:

Administrators ought to have been successful professors first, to learn what it’s all about; then, for a time, they may devote themselves a bit more to the house keeping chores before returning to the real work, that of thinking about substantive issues like the structure of matter or the nature of historical truth. (Martin, 1988, p. 1)

In the words of this author you hear the thought that administration is not as intellectually demanding as scholarly work. Consequently, since most administrators in the university are themselves academics, this has been used to support the notion that professionalism exist and controls the university, through the created “expert knowledge” (Ryan, 1980).

#### The Uniqueness of the Academic Dean’s Position

The academic dean interacts routinely with students, faculty, staff, department heads, fellow deans, vice-presidents, and presidents (Morris, 1981). They have a broader interaction scope than most administrators. Also, academic deans still hold faculty rank; however, upper-level administrators may not, thus making a commitment to being a career administrator (Gould, 1964), consequently having limited or no hand in teaching and research. Lastly, the dean is a personnel administrator with considerable responsibility in the area of the caliber of academic employees (Morris, 1981).



### Dilemmas of the Academic Deanship

“The dean of a college is sometimes described as a man too smart to be a professor and too dumb to be a president” (Grant, 1943, p. 35). This quote alludes to the unique situation inherent to the academic dean. One of the biggest dilemmas for a dean is trying to hold on 100% to their faculty identity (Tucker & Bryan, 1991). It has been likened to “having your cake and eating it too” by Tucker and Bryan. Many deans are torn between trying to teach and be dean, others with conducting research and being dean, and still others who try to teach, research, and be an effective dean. Tucker and Bryan (1991) asserts that only geniuses can do all three. However, most deans enter the position attempting to master all three.

Another important dilemma of the deanship is the dual role it plays in the university. The position in the organization of the university is the right arm of the administration while at the same time it serves as the executive officer of the faculty (Grant, 1943). Serving these dual roles have made the dean’s position move at a brisk pace (Gould, 1964) and a very stressful one (Simpson, 1996). As early as 1934 observations of the uniqueness and unattractiveness of the dean’s position had been made: “I believe that that dean in any other position might be a fine fellow, but he has got a bum job” (Randall, 1934, p. 240).

### Pathways to the Deanship

Administrative mobility or pathways have been examined to provide a more systematic portrayal of administrative careers at universities (Banaszek-Hall & Greer, 1995; Enarson, 1968; Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Sagaria, 1988). These studies have focused on issues such as job changes (Banaszak-Hall & Greer, 1995) to inherent differences by gender (Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Sagaria, 1988). One consistent thread between all of these studies is that individuals holding administrative positions frequently come from faculty ranks (Dearing, 1968; Moore & Sagaria, 1982). Moore (1983) found that of the sitting deans 34% had entered from the faculty after previously holding administrative positions, and 29% entered the deanship from a department chairperson position.

### Career Trajectory

Morris (1981) proposes four pathways to the academic deanship: (1) professorial ascension, (2) trained administrator, (3) managerial-outsider-transfer, and (4) political appointment. The professorial ascension posits that an assistant professor can rise through the academic ranks to become the dean. The trained administrator receives graduate preparation in administration/ management and develops a research agenda in the study of administrative problems. A managerial-outsider-transfer is when a business executive, military officer, or school superintendent is called in to fill the deanship. Lastly, political appointments are those who made the right friends in the right places.

Moore, Salimbene, Marlier, and Bragg (1983) identified six career paths to the deanship. The model has a four-step normative process: (1) earning a Ph.D. or professional degree, (2) serving as a faculty member with committee responsibilities, (3) being a department chairperson, (4) and then moving to the deanship. Path one would follow the normative process. Paths two and three represent faculty members who by-passed any administrative duties before assuming the deanship. Paths four and five are traveled by individuals who held an assistant or associate dean position without a faculty position before assuming the deanship. On the sixth and final path are persons with no experience within a college or university.

### Contributing Factors

Remond and Andrew (1987) outlined significant factors assisting individuals to obtain the deanship. Four major domains were found to be important in life/career pathways: significant others, educational experiences, occupational experiences, and personal events. Conclusions of the study identified several findings: people and relationships contributed to the development of leadership behaviors and strong ego development, and through family and educational experiences they developed strong values related to the importance of achievement and education.

### The Selection of the Dean

An integral component of the selection of an administrative position at colleges and universities are participative committees or search committees (Marchese & Lawrence, 1987; Mottram, 1983; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Considering the importance of this process, one would think that it would be well understood, but it's not (Kelly & Nelson, 1977). Most studies on the search process are on the president's selection (Bolman, 1965; Mangieri & Arnn, 1984; McLaughlin, 1985).

#### The Process

Several studies have explored specifically the academic dean's selection process (Ehlre & Earley, 1977; Lazerow & Winters, 1974; Newton, 1985; Phillip, 1969); however, most are based on anecdotal information. Several are noteworthy for discussion. Twombly (1992) uncovered dimensions of the process for selecting deans using multiple case studies of three search and screen processes. It was concluded that the searches were initiated in response to a real problem (i.e., position vacancy). Furthermore, the three searches appeared to have uniformity in the selection process. The gleaned sequence is: (1) chose a chairperson of the committee, (2) develop a job description, (3) advertise the position, (4) screen and interview candidates, and (5) select finalists. Lastly, all committees operated with the same goal: "to hire a dean" (Twombly, 1992, p. 673). This was achieved twofold: (1) generating a pool of candidates, and (2) matching candidates to the needs of the hiring unit. Prior to initiating a search for a dean the unit should assess its mission, resource allocation, and desired leadership characteristics (Margieri & Arnn, 1984).

#### Criteria for Selection

Heald (1982) has identified skills evaluated by search committees reviewing potential academic deans: (1) decision making, (2) program development, (3) planning and evaluation, (4) scholarship, (5) grantsmanship, (6) research, and (7) fiscal management. More specifically, Dill (1980) directs attention to The Chronicle of Higher Education to determine criteria: (1) an

earned doctorate, (2) experience which demonstrates capability as a teacher and scholar, (3) commitment to particular values and philosophies important to the school seeking the candidate, and (4) evidence of administrative ability.

### **Job Readiness**

The literature on the readiness of incumbents to fill the academic dean's position has been surveyed to determine if new deans are prepared for their new endeavor. More specifically, preparation before obtaining the dean's position and training for new deans are reported.

#### **Preparation for the Deanship**

Bauer (1955) states that "the idea that individuals can be deliberately prepared for administration at the college level is relatively new and controversial. In fact, to a few people, who cherish tradition in the face of changing circumstances, it is anathema" (p. 5). Academic deans have been referred to as "Amateur Deans" because they have not been schooled for the position and have not had previous experience in the dean's office (Marshall, 1968; Scott, 1979). This thought has been reinforced by Sagaria and Krotseng (1986) in their study entitled "Dean's Managerial Skills: What They Need and What They Bring to the Job." They found that the individual's pathway to the deanship has some impact on the degree of preparedness once in the position. For instance, faculty chairpersons and individuals who have held other administrative roles appeared to develop desired managerial skills. However, these two pathways did not utilize personnel effectively. On the other end of the spectrum, previous deans making lateral moves were no better prepared. This "suggests that some skills required in a deanship may not be learned through deaning" (Sagaria & Krotseng, 1986, p. 6).

#### **New Deans**

In lieu of the above comments, efforts have been made to train new deans. Training is provided in several formats: in-service, conferences, and research resources.

**In-Service.** The University of Trondheim's Norwegian Institute of Technology has a training program for deans to enhance the job's attractiveness, provide training opportunities, reduce problems of re-interaction into the academic career, and introduce professional development sessions (Bostad, 1989). Similar ideas have been introduced specifically for the deans of education by Cyphert and Zimpher (1978) in their article entitled "In-service Education needs of Education Deans" and Kunkel (1980) in "Toward Applied Leadership Development: Gramblings of a Rookie Dean" and also for deans of nursing by Armiger (1976) in "The Educational Crisis in the Preparation of Deans." Also, mentoring programs have been used to assist with in-service training. The Institute for Academic Leadership Development implements a systematic mentoring program which assigns participants an Individualized Professional Development Plan (IPDP) (Runnels & Mpinga, 1997). The IPDP helps deans-in-training to obtain knowledge-of-self, communication skills, interpersonal skills, an understanding of power and politics at colleges, and the capacity to interpret personal actions. Each participant is assigned a mentor to guide them through this process.

**Conferences.** Historically, institutes were offered for new academic deans. The University of Florida's Institute of Higher Education has conducted conferences for new academic deans (Andes, 1968). The conference is entitled: Institute for Newly Appointed Academic Deans. The four-day institute had sessions on: the general roles for academic deans, roles in change and improvement, and case study problems. The National Conference on Career Education - For Deans of Colleges of Education was sponsored by The Ohio State University (1972). This three-day conference focused on helping deans and potential deans with career focus. Also, The National Seminar for College Deans was sponsored by the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (1968). This conference was specific to college of educations as well.

Presently, most of the training efforts are headed by national professional organizations. "Organizations such as the University Council for Educational Administration,

Harvard University, the American Council on Education, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges have been engaged at one time or another in this kind of activity” (Cyphert & Zimpher, 1980, p. 91).

**Research Resources.** The American Association of Colleges of Nursing (1983) produced a monograph to help potential deans pose the right questions to themselves before they proceeded any further. Another comprehensive piece is the **Resource Handbook for Academic Deans** (Allen, 1999) funded by the American Conference of Academic Deans. The major areas covered were: what is a dean, becoming a dean, curriculum, personnel, legal matters, the financial side of deaning, academic publications, and real life. Edelson (1991) identified factors that led to easier and harder transitions of new deans. The main determining factor was familiarity with and understanding of the institution. Consequently, the research concluded that newer deans promoted from within had a better chance of success. Rooney and Clark (1982) explored the “honeymoon period” of the deanship to determine the expectation of faculty and the length of the “honeymoon” (approximately two years). The aforementioned study ties nicely to Colyar (1996) study on the faculty acceptance of change initiated by new deans. The level of acceptance is high during the “honeymoon period”; however, it is greater the first year.

#### A Demographic Analysis of Academic Deans

Numerous studies have been conducted on the demographic analysis of deans, obtaining information about personal background, educational and work experience, attitudes toward decanal credentials, and motives for becoming deans (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Konrad, 1980; Miller, 1989; Munson, 1994). Some of these investigations have been area specific (Miller, 1989; Munson, 1994) and others have even looked at deans in other countries (Konrad, 1980).

### Profile

Stereotypically, the academic dean is older, white, and male, has a terminal degree, has many years of experience in teaching and administration (department chairperson), and was tenured as a teaching faculty member (Cyphert & Zimpher, 1980; Gould, 1986; Johnson, 1983; Kilpela, 1984). Comparatively speaking, Cyphert and Zimpher (1976) found that American deans of education were most commonly healthy and energetic, middle-aged, married, White, Protestant, and from a modest family background. They held doctorate degrees, had some training in educational administration, entered the profession through the public school experience and advanced to the university faculty, and obtained the deanship. Moore (1983) administered a survey to deans, to discover that 13.6% were females, 7.2% were minorities, 80+% held rank and tenure, 56% were seeking a job change, and 60% reported at least one mentor.

Institutional Type. Thirty-eight percent of the deans were employed at institutions with sizes between 5,000 - 15,000 students. The median size was 6,250 students (Andersen & King, 1987).

Level of Education. A terminal degree by far is the choice of education for academic deans. Deans of education were found to possess terminal degrees at a rate of 95%, with more having Ph.D.s (52%) than the Ed.D. (43%) (Andersen & King, 1987). Bryll and Sukalo (1982) examined the major sources of academic training for medical deans. The following universities were the findings of the study: Cornell University, the University of Pennsylvania, and Northwestern University. Health professional deans were found to hold a single professional degree or a combination of a professional degree and master's degree (Terry, 1988). Similarly, law school deans are shown to only hold professional degrees (Philip, 1988).

Years as a Dean. The average length of stay for deans are six to 10 years (Andersen & King, 1987). A high level of turnover is noted in several areas: medicine (Banaszak-Holl &

Greer, 1994), business (Jacobson, 1994), and social work (Otis & Caragonne, 1979).

**Ethnic and Gender Specific.** The Andersen and King (1987) study found the majority of deans to be white (88%), and African Americans constituted only 12% of the population. The men far out-numbered the women, 62% to 33% respectively. Unfortunately, the long-standing stereotype of the academic deanship appears to still be true.

#### **How Diverse is the Deanship?**

Ethnicity and gender have been the focus of several inquiries concerning academic deans. Castenell and Tarule (1997) edited a collection of papers that examined the issues related to minority and female deans in colleges of education. Practical suggestions on how academic deans can provide opportunities to women and minority faculty were offered by Larsen and Wadlow (1982). Areas of focus were: (1) the screening and search process, (2) strategies for recruiting faculty, (3) strategies for coping with retrenchment, and (4) other strategies which support affirmative action goals.

#### **Ethnicity**

Motley (1977) speaks about the dilemma and irony of being an African American administrator at a predominantly white institution. He expressed the suspicions of African American students and White administrators in reference to his competency. He concluded that success is more dependent upon style than effectiveness or productivity. Furthermore, reflective perspectives on serving as an academic dean were shared (Allen-Mearey, 1997) and breakthroughs such as being the first African American appointed to a particular academic deanship (Collison, 1988) as well.

#### **Gender**

Wills (1980) offered six points of advice to women aspiring to enter the academic deanship. Women should not lock themselves into doing the same things, build faculty credentials, insist that their institutions adhere to the principles of affirmative action, make



professional connections, decide how mobile they are, and plan to use their education and experiences for academic administration.

### **Roles of the Academic Dean**

“Deans do not have clearly defined jobs because of the power of faculties, senates or other bodies, and unions, and because of the nature of the university” (Griffiths, 1980, p. 28). Ryan (1980) indicates that studying the dean’s roles are difficult because they relate to both organizational structures within the university setting (faculty and administration). We are cautioned that for deans to survive they must become active leaders using reflection, analysis, proposal making, and action to move their college or school in a new direction (Dill, 1980). Considering all of this information, it is difficult to evaluate deans; less than half of academic deans are evaluated annually (Bowker, 1981).

Metaphorically speaking, the roles of the academic dean have been compared to a “dove, dragon, and diplomat” (Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Deans must assume the role of a dove of peace, attempting to prevent the warring between two factions in the college. Other times, the dean must be a dragon to drive away harmful internal and external forces. Lastly, deans are diplomats who guide, inspire, and encourage the people in the college. Numerous pragmatic roles are gleaned from the literature and discussed below. These roles differ from the ones generated in the present study in one respect. The present study will delineate roles from empirical data. The following roles, for the most part have been generated from anecdotal data.

#### **Academic Leader**

“The dean must demonstrate by his own actions the expectation of quality instruction, research and public service” (Fullerton, 1978, p. 27). It is very clear that the dean is expected to be a stellar academician (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1981; Gould, 1964; Pine, 1980). Deans are further asked to set priorities and alternatives for future academic endeavors, Ehrle (1979) and Enarson (1968) used the phrase “academic planner.” A priority levied on deans is fostering scholarship among faculty and students (Patti, 1997). Perkins

(1991) offers several suggestions to achieve this goal: develop an intellectual climate, support professional development, and “lead by example” by undertaking scholarly activities. On occasion deans have been known to take sabbaticals (Arden, 1969).

### Leader

By virtue of having the “final say” on most matters of the college the dean is bestowed authority (Dejnozka, 1978; Koch, 1968). The academic dean is responsible for guiding the organization by creating a vision (Fullerton, 1978; Hilosky & Watwood, 1997). Innovative deans are very good at being visionaries (Enarson, 1968). Several deans have provided insight into their approach to leadership: building a support network, collaboration, reconciling internal and external roles, create strategies to achieve missions, and developing leadership in others (Allen-Meares, 1997; Fagin, 1997). Lastly, deans are urged to borrow leadership approaches from other sectors (i.e., public and business administration) (McGannon, 1973).

### Resource Allocator

The financial resources and budget development are ultimately the responsibility of the dean (Dill, 1980; Fullerton, 1978). However, the day-to-day management and monitoring of financial resources are handled by a budget officer. Furthermore, a development officer within the college takes the lead on fostering development, and the dean helps when and where necessary.

### Mediator/Advocate

The dean should curtail fluctuations in professionalism and the pressures of special interests (Dejnozka, 1978; Fullerton, 1978) and must management conflict (Enarson, 1968; Feltner & Goodsell, 1972; Fusch, 1993). The dean is responsible for “keeping the peace” within the college among all of its constituents.

### Collaborator

Building collaborative relationships with the college (Geiger, 1989), institution (Dejnozka, 1978), and outside the university (Wisniewski, 1977) is highly recommended. The

dean serves as a focal point for fostering relationships within and outside the college.

#### Politician/ Spokesperson

Balancing competing pressures and demands is a crucial component of the dean's job (Gideonse, 1976). During the political process the dean decides how time, talent, energy, and resources will be disseminated. Public relations functions and ceremonial engagements require the presence of the dean (Fullerton, 1978).

#### Manager

Gant (1983) noted managerial aspects of the deanship: have a clear mission, build a management team, monitor performances, provide feedback, and provide a productive climate. Strategic planning is a critical component of the managerial role for academic deans (Carrigan, 1988), equally important is coordination of all these aspects to achieve administrative harmony (Enarson, 1968).

#### Colleague/ Nurturer/ Counselor

Collegiality is a major tenet on which the academy was founded. Effective collegial relationships are based on mutual understandings, respect, and trust (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1981). These relationships can be fostered with other administrators, faculty, students, and the public at-large. The dean should take an active part in the personal and professional development of students (Ptersdorf, 1997) and faculty/staff (Fullerton, 1978). On occasions the dean as a result of reaching expert status is approached for insightful information. Therefore, the dean will serve as a counselor to students, staff, and faculty (Botthof, 1977) on an array of issues (i.e., career and personal matters).

#### Information Handler/ Evaluator

Information is the dean's "best friend" (Kinnick, 1994). Deans use information to assess students' needs (McMillian, 1994), assess academic programs (Gentemann, Fletcher, & Potter, 1994), and faculty work (Gray & Diamond, 1994). The dean is expected to reward outstanding faculty (Dejnozka, 1978; Koch, 1968) and discipline faculty members on other

occasions (Bowker, 1981). Good observation skills are critical during this process (Bernier, 1987).

### **Role Conflict and Ambiguity**

Role conflict and ambiguity of the academic dean's position has been investigated in America (Scott, 1978; Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1999) and Australia (Sarros, Gmelch, & Tanewski, 1998). Wolverton, Wolverton, and Gmelch (1999) discovered that role conflict and ambiguity had adverse effects on job satisfaction, work-related stress, perception of effectiveness, and organizational commitment. However, the study of Australian deans found that role conflict and ambiguity play only a minimal role in work-related stress (Sarros, Gmelch, & Tanewski, 1998).

### **Functions and Duties of Academic Deans**

The duties and functions of the academic deanship have changed and evolved over time (Gould, 1964). Assigned tasks of academic deans have transgressed from their meager beginning assuming secretarial duties, now elevating the academic dean to the level of executive officer in charge of a college (Dupont, 1956). These changes have been guided by research and the changing values of society. Contextual differences are apparent when looking at the tasks and duties of different institutional types (i.e., research, teaching, comprehensive, and private universities). The differences are inherent to the purposes and missions of the institutions, the "client" base, and sources of funding (Morsink, 1987).

In 1928 Friley proposed the proper functions of the dean could be divided into two classes: administrative and ministrative. Those outlined as administrative were: (1) deans should act as the chief adviser to the President with respect to the work and policies of their particular school; (2) deans should be members of the administrative council of the institution; (3) subject to the approval of the president, deans should nominate faculty members for their school; (4) deans should be responsible for the budget estimate of their school; (5) deans should supervise curricula, courses, and methods of instruction in their school; (6) deans

should keep actively in touch with the disciplinary problems of their school; (7) they should be responsible for the preparation of business for their faculty; (8) they should devote a reasonable amount of their time to teaching and to research in the problems of educational administration; (9) the work of their school should be closely coordinated with that of the other divisions of their institution; and (10) they should make public contacts as far as their time and opportunities will permit; and they should keep in touch with the graduates of their school, either directly or through the alumnus organization. Two of the most important duties are ministrative: (11) deans should be the adviser of the students in their school and in this work they should have the aid of assistant deans when the number of students justifies the appointment of such officers, and (12) with the assistance of their instructional staff they should find and develop outstanding intellectual talent among the students of their school.

Morsink (1987) gleans two generic functions of the academic dean. Function one is to provide leadership for the unit to focus on its mission by words, personal example, and policy development. This function is achieved by having a futuristic perspective (vision) of needed goals and action plans to achieve them. Function two is to provide support to enable subordinates to perform at maximum levels. This may include advocating the unit to those who control the resources, show your subordinates they are valued, and help them to develop needed skills.

Milner (1936) collected data on 100 colleges with an annual enrollment of between 200 and 600 students. The questionnaire sought the actual responsibilities of the dean and work they considered to be specific to the deanship. Deans were given a choice of 60 functions, and the 20 most frequent functions assigned to the dean were: (1) to interview students on all academic matters, (2) to advise failing students, (3) to correspond with parents on all matters of student welfare, (4) to give counsel on all academic problems, (5) to grant permission for changes of course study, (6) to supervise the college curriculum, (7) to excuse class absences, (8) to grant permission for extra hours, (9) to supervise all discipline, (10) to interview

applicants for admission, (11) to give general advice on all college policies, (12) to help estimate the teaching ability of faculty members, (13) to make annual reports upon the academic work of the college, (14) to estimate the constructive influences of the faculty members on campus life, (15) to recommend all changes in curriculum, (16) with heads of departments to make all changes in courses, (17) to improve instruction, (18) to determine entrance requirements for transfer students, (19) to give social guidance to freshmen, and (20) to coordinate and improve the grading system. The 60 administrative responsibilities were divided under four headings: director of educational activities, adviser to the president, supervisor of student welfare, and supervisor of college activities.

Reeves and Russell (1929, 1932) conducted two studies to determine the functions of the dean. Both studies generated a list of 13 functions. The following is from the second study: (1) to direct the educational activities of the college, (2) to act as chief adviser to the president in matters of college policy, particularly in academic affairs, (3) to formulate educational policies and to present them to the president and faculty for consideration, (4) to direct the attention of faculty members to changes in educational thought and practice, particularly as they affect higher education, (5) to transmit to the president the budget recommendations for academic activities, after details have been worked out with department heads, (6) to make reports relating to the work of the college, (7) to supervise curriculums, courses, and methods of instruction, (8) to cooperate with heads of departments in the nomination of new members for the teaching staff, and to make suggestions to the president regarding the promotion, demotion, or dismissal of members of the faculty, (9) to assist in the recruiting of students, (10) to classify students and assign them to classes, (11) to study the progress and academic welfare of students, (12) to serve as chief disciplinary officer of the college, and (13) to represent the college at meetings of educational institutions.

Mobberly and Wicke (1962) found similar functions they summarized under the following heads: (1) objectives and campus tone, (2) personnel, (3) curriculum, (4) student

welfare, and (5) institutional research. Ryan (1980) noted that deans of a college at a large university have two major responsibilities: (1) recommend the annual college budget to the president and allocate the received budget, and (2) recommend the appointments to, and all promotions within, the staff and members of the college faculty. Up until this point, comprehensive views of the functions and duties of the deanship have been discussed. Specific functions/duties of the academic deanship have been queried further. These studies are described in the following section.

### Decision Making

The decision making process is very similar to a problem solving model (McCarty & Reyes, 1987; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). The first step is to identify the problem, generate possible solutions, and then determine which solution is the best. Hart (1977) notes situations for which an academic dean must make decisions: professional and human issues, and issues dealing with the whole college. Johnson and George (1987) contends that deans should consider the governance and organizational structure, and the changing internal and external environments before making decisions.

Tucker and Bryan (1991) outlined several approaches to making decisions for academic deans. They are: (1) the dean makes decisions and announces them, (2) the dean makes the decision and invites questions, (3) the dean presents a tentative decision subject to change, (4) the dean presents the problem, receives suggestions, and makes decision, (5) the dean defines the limits and asks faculty to make the decision within the limits, and (6) the dean permits the faculty to make the decision with broadly defined guidelines.

### Faculty Recruitment and Development

One of the dean's prime responsibilities is to recruit and develop faculty (Boice, 1985; Fadum, 1971; McHargue, 1996a; McHargue, 1996b). Professional development opportunities should be continuous and not one-time deals. Fadum (1971) recommends that deans promote research, involvement in professional organizations, and sabbaticals.

**Recruitment.** Major concerns in the recruitment process are maintaining a balance of new and experienced members as well as strong areas of concentration (Fadum, 1971), and promoting inter-departmental alliances that foster inter-disciplinary work (Christ, 1989). Broadening the research foci and increasing external funding is also crucial areas of concerns for academic deans in the recruitment process (Herzberg & Katz, 1982). There is competition with government and industry for the talent of the faculty (Gould, 1964).

**Teaching.** Bowker and Lynch advocated on several occasions that a major part of a dean's job is to support teaching (Bowker & Lynch, 1985; Lynch & Bowker, 1985). A multitude of studies have echoed the same belief (Backman, 1984; Bowker, 1981; Bowker, 1982; Cole, 1983; Huffman, 1992; Imig, 1984; Jacobson, 1986; Scales, 1993; Simpson, 1996; Queitzsc, 1997).

To help enhance teaching the "Great Teachers Seminar" (GTS) is a long-standing approach (over 25 years). The three main components of the GTS are: (1) teaching celebrations which serve specific disciplines of faculty, (2) all college workshops, involving faculty, administrators, classified staff, and students to cultivate things that are working at the colleges and solve multiple challenges, and (3) meetings for such specific groups as department chairs, academic leaders, or staff (McHargue, 1996b).

**Development and Evaluation.** A systematic plan for faculty development and evaluation at the College of St. Francis (Steinkruass, 1978) is described below: (1) a system of faculty evaluation must be linked with a faculty development program and must exist within a framework of a reward system, (2) all parties affected must have an equal opportunity for input, (3) the system must be unique to the institution and not imported from another institution, and (4) the system of evaluation should allow for several types of evaluation.

#### **Financial Management**

Academic deans are being asked to become more entrepreneurial in the development of funds (Academic Association of Colleges of Nursing, 1981; Barnes, 1996). This is occurring



because the cost of higher education is increasing and institutions are having to do more with less. Denemark (1983) suggests that academic deans must provide financial management through: (1) long range planning, (2) establishing priorities, and (3) efficient decision making.

Fundraising increasingly is becoming a job requirement for deans, more specifically cultivating potential private donors (Hall, 1993; Mercer, 1997). As a result, there are publications to help deans acquire these skills: The Dean's Role in Fund Raising (Hall, 1993) and Building Bridges: Funding Raising for Deans, Faculty, and Development Officers (Murphy, 1993). Other areas of responsibility are dividing the budget among academic departments and programs (Finnegan, 1951; Higgins, 1947; Tucker & Bryan, 1991), and directing federally funded special projects (Arends, Reinhard, & Sivage, 1981).

### Evaluation

Evaluation is a very big part of what the university does (i.e., grades, tenure and promotion, and merit raises) (Gould, 1964). Evaluation is tied to effectiveness, improvement, and in many cases quality. Since evaluation is a big part of the university, the dean is placed in the center as a result.

Evaluation of the Dean. Formal criteria and procedures for evaluating the dean's performance are not made explicit in many institutions. There have been numerous studies to look at this aspect (Haberman, 1972; Lasley & Haberman, 1987; Matczynski, Lasley, & Haberman, 1989; Morris, 1981; Rasmussen, 1978). Matczynski, Lasley, and Haberman (1989) found that the dean is expected to communicate with a variety of constituents and to secure needed resources for faculty members to maximize their full potential, and must be able to work with a broad constituency, and must be able to negotiate with a diverse constituency, and be a spokesperson.

Deans Evaluating Students. Deans also assume evaluative roles with students in their college or school (Hunt, MacLaren, & Carline, 1991). This is a figurative type of evaluation because the evaluation is done from a distance (Sorenson, 1996). Nonetheless, the dean's

signature is needed for students to graduate and receive their degrees.

**Deans Evaluating Faculty.** The appointment, promotion, and tenure process is the major source of faculty assessment (Euster & Weinbach, 1986; Holmes & Otis, 1977; Seldin & Wakin, 1974; Philipi, 1979). However, Austin (1994) states that deans must assess and understand faculty culture and climate as well. This is important as it pertains to understanding one's environment.

**Deans Evaluating Chairpersons.** Deans evaluate chairpersons because they are critical in achieving the goals and visions of the college (Tucker & Bryan, 1991). They should look at elements such as: program management, personnel management, long-range planning, and development.

### **Conflict Management**

Conflict is a fundamental ingredient of change. Burke (1969) identifies five methods to resolve conflict in higher education: withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, forcing, and confronting. Feltner and Goodsell (1972) noted two things deans should consider when entering into a conflict situation: (1) each party enters the confrontation with difference perceptions, and (2) each party enters with a certain degree of fear for change. In a conflict situation deans can assume three roles: initiator of conflict, defendant in a conflict situation, and conciliator of a conflict situation.

### **The Dean's Image**

Gould (1964) made several observations about the leadership image of the academic dean. The first observation is the parliamentary chairperson image. This dean keeps order in meetings even when there are conflicting interests, but takes no position on any substantive issues. The second observation is the executive officer image. This dean assists the faculty in moving as smoothly as possible toward objectives of the departments. The third observation is the catalyst image. This dean facilitates action but plays no part in the determination of the

outcome. The last observation is the functionary image. This dean works closely with department heads to reconcile differences concerning the objectives of the college.

### **An Effective or Ideal Dean**

The ideal dean as described by Wells (1980) is: "Born with the physical charm of a Greek athlete, the cunning of Machiavelli, the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of a lion, if possible; but, in any case, be born with the stomach of a goat" (p. 47). Zacharias (1985) identified five characteristics of the ideal dean: (1) a sound academic reputation and high visibility with the profession, (2) a reputation for innovative approaches to curriculum and research activities, (3) experiences at more than one academic institution, (4) familiarity with international dimensions of the discipline, and (5) respect by non-academic professionals for academic work and professional activities. Five similar areas of expertise were offered by Martin (1993).

A more detailed view of an effective academic dean would look like the following. An effective dean enjoys the respect and confidence from their faculty (Bitzer, 1985), and deliberately seeks advice and input from faculty concerning all developments in the college (Inglis, 1977). Deans make themselves accessible to counsel and assist faculty and staff when necessary (McDaniel, 1978). They listen with keen ears to discern the truth from deceit (Trent, 1985). The effective dean promotes excellence in faculty performance (Geddes, 1985) and devises and initiates change in the educational programs of the college (Ranta, 1985). Curriculum is the chief concern on their agenda (Jeffrey, 1985). These persons get things done, but do not attempt to do everything (Whitmore, 1985). They must also be a superb manager of money, space, and personnel (Garnier, 1982). Making improvement in the operations and outputs of the college is key for effective deans (Colaizzi, 1982; French, 1973; Mee, 1996). The dean strategically delegates tasks to competent people. They develop people to assume responsibility for important tasks (Linnell, 1974). In their interactions with others they are consistent, display integrity, remain steadfast to the high standards of the academy, are

slow to anger, and are open to suggestions (Barker, 1984). In sum they must be educational statespersons (Bitzer, 1985).

### **The Dean's Relationship with Others**

Cultivating and forming relationships is a critical part of any job. Since academic deans are placed in the center of the organization and administration of the university, they must maintain many relationships. In their position, deans probably are involved in more relationship than their administrative counterparts.

#### **Relationships with Departmental Chairpersons**

The department head is instrumental in articulating and interpreting the overall institutional concerns and transmits them to the faculty (McGannon, 1968). Therefore, the dean should always communicate clearly with the department heads concerning goals, priorities, resource availability, and institutional policies (Bowker & Lynch, 1985). Department heads are uneasy about problems that arise from "administrative domination" (Harkness, 1968). The relationship between the dean and department heads is centered around three aspects: (1) the social relationship, (2) the professional one-on-one relationship, and (3) administrative team relationship (Sandefur & Oblesby, 1982). Numerous studies have provided insight into ways to help foster this relationship (Bennett, 1990; Everding, 1988; Fallon, 1988; Gould, 1964; Jones, 1989; Pincus, 1994; Tucker & Bryan, 1991; Williamson, 1987). They are: know the dean and the college's mission, speak the dean's language, know your statistics (pertinent information), meet all deadlines, make the department look good, and maintain an accurate budget.

#### **Relationships with the Faculty**

Deans as academic managers generally have close professional relationships with their faculty colleagues (Anderson, 1997; Koff, 1976; Mooney, 1988; Tucker & Byran, 1991). They almost always come from the faculty ranks. The dean generally should avoid dealing directly with faculty on budgetary matters, salary, tenure, and promotion (Fullerton, 1978;

Gattas, 1985; Joughin, 1963). However, faculty member relationships mostly are fostered through committee work. Other approaches where deans establish relationships with faculty are through hosting informal luncheons or breakfasts, and occasionally visiting faculty members' offices (Grant, 1943; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). The dean can assume three basic roles in this relationship: (1) management representative, (2) faculty (staff) advocate, and (3) facilitator - mediator (Simpson, 1996).

### Relationships with Students

Of all the officers in the college, the dean is likely to have less contact with students. Tucker and Bryan (1991) state that the dean's time spent with students probably takes up less than 10 % of a working day. Usually, an assistant or associate dean is designated to serve as the academic unit's student personnel officer (Mobberly & Wicke, 1962).

### Relationship with the President

The dean's relationship with the president is characterized by one general rule (Enarson, 1968; Gould, 1964; Tucker & Bryan, 1991): the larger the institution, the less likely is the dean to interact with the president. The smaller the institution, the greater chance the dean will have to establish a relationship with the president. At most institutions, regardless of the size, there are three situations where cooperation exist: (1) ceremonial (i.e., commencement and convocation), (2) fund-raising activities, and (3) the dean's efforts to recruit faculty and department chairpersons (Horn, 1968; Mayhew, 1968; Mobberly & Wicke, 1962; Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

### Relationships with the Chief Academic Officer

The relationship between the chief academic officer and the deans is similar to the relationship between the dean and his or her chairpersons (Cyphert & Zimpher, 1980). The chief academic officer relies heavily on the dean to carry out the academic mission of the dean's academic unit. The deans should foster and earn the trust of the chief academic officer (Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

### Relationships with other Deans

Academic deans eventually will form relationships with the other deans at the university (Mobberly & Wicke, 1962). These relationship may be cooperative, competitive, or neutral. All of these forms of relationships can be healthy for the vitality of the university (Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

### Relationships with Nonacademic Personnel Staff

Nonacademic personnel are hired, fired, promoted, demoted, rewarded, and punished by a dual system of management: academic employer and personnel services. The dean may hire a secretary, but the salary is set by the personnel officer, and so is the job classification. A frustrating aspect of this relationship is the dean's inability to promote or reward outstanding people because of the rules of the personnel office (Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

### Relationships with the External Public

The dean is also asked to establish and maintain relationships with members outside of the university: alumni, parents, trustees, and legislators (Mobberly & Wicke, 1962; Tucker & Bryan, 1991).

### **Reflections of the Academic Dean**

Studies of academic deans reflecting over their experiences in the position are important aspects of the literature. Individuals recounting their activities in the dean's role is one approach (Bowen, 1995; Gardner, 1992; Martin, 1988; Newsome, 1997). Discussion of the goals set and achieved is a second approach (Ehrlich, 1997; Farquhar, 1978). General commentary and discussion was a third approach (Eklund, 1971; Harvey, 1973; Hunt, 1991;; Kirk, 1997; Shawl, 1974; Sizer, 1972, 1973).

### **The Day of a Dean**

Several deans have attempted to describe a typical day, by highlighting interactions with constituents (i.e., faculty and students), tasks to be accomplished, and issues to be addressed.

Machen (1995) used a detailed dairy method, and Ahean (1997) used a descriptive daily schedule.

### **The Dean's Role in Change**

Changes in the United States government, corporate culture, career aspirations, demographic make-up, and globalization have affected the higher education system profoundly (Martin & Samels, 1997; McCoy, 1997). As a result, the dean is instrumental in managing the significant changes (Arends, Reinhard, & Sivage, 1981; Backman, 1984; Hall, Mitsunaga, & Tornay, 1981; Kissler, 1988; Kolodry, 1998; McMillan, 1994; Riggs & Huffman, 1989; Simpson, 1996).

Tucker and Byran (1991) provide suggestions for intervention plans for change: (1) call attention to contradiction in action and attitudes, (2) use research to help individuals develop a conceptual understanding, (3) find institutional activities germane to a particular problem, (4) slow change in the environment can help lower situational conflict, (5) adopt two or more options rather than a single forced choice, (6) persuade departments to choose a course of action, (7) provide comparative data, (8) provide fiscal support to achieve a goal, and (9) use tradition to help change.

Guiding principles of the change process have been offered by Austin, Ahearn, and English (1997). They are that the dean must: assume multiple roles with respect to internal affairs, reassess regularly organizational culture, reach a consensus about the school's mission, advocate for resources to assist the change process, manage the external relations of the school involved, and maintain continuous support throughout the whole change process until all goals are achieved.

### **Challenges, Problems, and Issues of the Academic Deanship**

Challenges, problems, and issues exist for every job (Gould, 1964; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Studies have identified those that are specific to the academic deanship. Shifting priorities of the colleges and universities (Everly, 1975) caused issues with curriculum

challenges (Cox & Harper, 1979), licensure programs (DePaola, 1992), and accreditation (Gilman, 1983; Nelson, 1983). The introduction of technology has provided an array of challenges and problems to deaning (Baer, 1994; Creswell, 1994; DiNapoli, 1977; Ehrmann, 1994; Faraj, 1987; Gallagher, 1990; Harris, 1969; Kravets, 1994; Mulhern, 1977). In dealing with a lot of personnel issues the dean must be knowledgeable about employment litigation issues (Corder, 1986; Haston, 1996; ten Hoor, 1968). Job satisfaction (Austin, Ahearn, & English, 1997; Barritt, 1974; Lamborn, 1991) and stress (Austin, Ahearn, & English, 1997; Ryan, 1980; Simpson, 1996; Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1998) have been discussed adequately in the literature as well.

#### Administrative Behavior of Academic Deans

“Administrators are 51 percent born and 49 percent made” (Morris, 1981, p. 10).

While this may be true, academic managerial skills (Tucker & Bryan, 1991) and leadership skills (Grant, 1943) must be cultivated, shaped, and tested before one can say an individual is ready to serve as dean. Very little is known about the administrative behavior of academic deans; therefore, making it difficult to prepare potential occupants and incumbents adequately for the academic deanship. The studies present in the literature base concerning administrative behavior will be reported in this section.

Bernier (1987) proposed that the dean should be a participant observer. “The role of a dean requires ethnographic skills in monitoring organizational realities such as changing symbolic systems, managing cultural conflicts, and dealing with conflicting expectations generated by organizational and professional affiliation” (Bernier, 1987, p. 17). The article calls for the dean to utilize participatory observational tactics looking at their everyday work situation as opportunities for critical reflection while performing their leadership role.

Miller, Schroeder, and Hotes (1982) found that effective deans will utilize a participatory type of governance that will include the following steps: (1) delegation to subordinates; (2) trust subordinates to do the job; and (3) hold subordinates accountable for



tasks delegated to them. Gieger (1989) suggests that deans should be collaborative leaders. He urges deans to cultivate input and harmony within the school, university, and professional organizations. Similarly, McCarthy and Reyes (1987) reported that an academic dean's ability to guide a college effectively seems to be enhanced with the use of a collegial model. Venderveen (1988) found that pharmacy deans preferred a high people-high task management orientation.

Fleischauer (1990) cautions deans not to allow management theories to diminish the needs of the college, but rather to seek coherence of goals and commitments toward a common vision. Another administrative behavior is called the "cluster" dean (Dolan & Mittler, 1976). The cluster dean's primary responsibility is to lead, supervise, and evaluate the faculty and staff within a learning cluster. Ehrle and Bennett (1988) conducted 25 case studies to determine how the academic enterprise was being managed. They found priorities to be: (1) key constituents; (2) departmental responsibilities; (3) maintaining balance in the academic enterprise; (4) redirecting difficult people; (5) dealing with change; (6) meeting special challenges; and (7) that work must continue to go on.

Griesbach (1990) found that goals, traditions, and the environment are major factors influencing the control of deans. Also, when these three areas of control were aggregated they indicated that academic deans have a greater tendency to use hierarchial forms of control compared to non-hierarchial forms. Simpson (1996) identified three administrative styles or behaviors of the dean in an hierarchial organization: adrenaloidal, ulcerodial, and hemorroodial. The adrenaloidal type wants things done yesterday. The ulcerodial type worries about everything. The hemorrhoidal type will just sit on or ignore a problem hoping that it will go away.

Although not a study on the academic deanship, another study merits discussion in this section. The discussion is imperative because of its applicability to this study. Mintzberg (1973) conducted a structured observation study of five managers (executives). He divided

managerial activities (executive behavior) into three groups: interpersonal relationships, transfer of information, and decision making. He then delineated twelve roles from these areas. The role of figurehead, liaison, and leader came from his interpersonal roles, which placed the executive in an unique position to obtain information. The three informational roles (monitor, disseminator, and spokesman) gave the manager (executive) unique access to information, and coupled with special status and authority placed the manager in a position where organizational decisions were made. The decisional roles were entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Mintzberg's study was based on one-week observations reporting the distribution of the activity of the executives.

Mintzberg also noted common patterns of behavior for these five managers (executives) as: (1) the executives worked at an unrelenting pace, with no breaks in activity during the day; (2) their days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation; (3) they spared little time for activities not directly related to their work; (4) they exhibited a preference for live action encounters; (5) they maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organizations; (6) because they are immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the organization going, they lack time for reflection; (7) they identified themselves with their jobs; and (8) they had difficulty sharing information.

### Conclusion

The literature on the academic deanship makes for fascinating reading. However, it provides little insight into the questions posed in Chapter I. Rarely did researchers attempt to address the question of what does a dean do, even when the question was posed, no answers were provided. Instead the literature concentrates on the dean's style and strategies. Occasionally, the dean's schedule and some details of a dean's day are discussed, but nothing substantial enough to construct a general framework to understand academic executive behavior. The following quotes solidify the need for the study and the methodological approach:

I am concerned about the substance of research in the administration of higher education. Little of the research is done on 'what administrators actually do.' (Griffiths, 1980, p. 38)

. . . the behavior of deans as individuals-in-organizations cannot be understood without some prior understanding of the nature of the organization they inhabit. In another place, the author has argued that theory developed for organizations in general must be refined on the academic setting by knowledge of the day-to-day dynamics and processes peculiar to that institution. (Ryan, 1980, p. 136)

The need for this research has been well documented. The actual activities performed by academic deans must be carefully studied as to their content and purpose. This was achieved by using structured and unstructured observations. These research methodologies are detailed more in Chapter III. The actual activities that the academic dean performed was translated into roles and then compared against executive behavior outlined by Mintzberg (1973). These comparisons are reported in Chapters IV, V, VI.

### CHAPTER III

#### A METHOD TO STUDY DECANAL WORK

Prior to this point, discussions have been presented concerning the literature pertinent to understanding the academic deanship. The inadequacy of these data providing a complete picture of the dean's work (everyday life) also has been discussed. A couple of notable exceptions are studies by Machen (1995) and Ahean (1997). Therefore, taken collectively the literature leaves some unanswered questions. Specific roles and duties of the deanship are available, but an integrated account of their everyday activities (executive behavior) is not. The ways in which academic deans operate and interact that distinguish their position from other executive officers was of interest. A desire to supplement the literature with this information was the impetus for this research.

The chapter is organized in the following manner. First, the reason for choosing the method of study is explained. Second, four tenets are outlined that were used to guide the study. Third, structured and unstructured observational methodologies are discussed. Fourth, Hawthorne effects are addressed concerning this study. Fifth, a discussion of the selection of subjects are provided.

#### Choice of Research Methodology

The following four premises adopted from Mintzberg's (1968) original study on managers underlie the choice of research methodology: (1) one basic set of work activities is common to all academic deans, only the proportion among them and the style used may vary; (2) to achieve the research objective, it will be necessary to use an inductive approach; (3) to collect the necessary data the methods of structured and unstructured observation must be used;

and (4) in any pragmatic sense, it is not possible to choose a representative sample of academic deans to study.

#### Premise One

The academic dean position is defined as the head of an academic unit, division, college, or school of a university. Furthermore, deans report to the president through the provost or vice president of academic affairs, which represents the administrative side of the university (Gould, 1964; Simpson, 1996), while also representing the faculty of their college through the leadership of the departmental chairs (Morris, 1981). These two sides do not always share a common vision. This research was designed to study the work inherent to heading a college or school.

A consensus of the definition for activity is not easily achieved. A cross-trainer calls the physical act of stretching and warming up for the race an activity; observers may see the execution of the race as an activity. In this study, the term activity was used to refer to an administrative event with a stimulus and participant(s), such as meetings, telephone calls, campus tours, or the receipt of mail.

It is stated in the first premise that all deans engage in the same basic set of activities. Therefore, it is inherently implied that this set of activities is finite and determinable, permitting the researcher to categorize all the dean's work into one set of activities, ultimately to aggregate these activities to form roles. Secondly, the premise states that academic deans are different in two ways. First, there are different degrees to which they engage in activities. The mix of activities will vary, and this will likely depend on the type of college or school headed (i.e., public vs. private institution) (Bryan, 1980; Corson, 1968; Dill, 1980). For example, one would expect the dean at a private institution to be more involved than a public institution dean in fundraising activities. Second, administrative style differs for each individual (Bernier, 1987; Gieger, 1989; McCarthy & Reyes, 1987). Personalities will shape the way deans approach a given situation. For example, all deans will have to resolve conflict situations, but

the methods used to reach resolution will be different (Burke, 1969; Feltner & Goodsell, 1972).

Unfortunately, this research did not focus on administrative style or the mix of activities. The attempt was to define the kinds of activities in which academic deans engage and the reason for their involvement. Consequently, any activity that was found to be common to all deans was defined as a decanal activity. A conscious attempt was made to relate any work performed by deans in their position before the activity was dismissed from the study.

### Premise Two

In Chapter II, it was argued that the descriptions of the academic dean's work in the literature was vague and provide very little insight into the activities performed. It is therefore suggested that inductive reasoning was necessary to help fill this void in the literature. The aggregate of the literature states abstract functions and duties of the deanship (Dupont, 1968; Gould, 1964; Morsink, 1987), and others have attempted to categorize these activities into roles (Allen-Meares, 1997; Bowker, 1981; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Mintzberg states "It is a truism that the total job of the manager [academic dean] is no more than the sum of all the individual activities" (1968, p. 58). Hence, understanding these individual activities are key in understanding the executive behavior of academic deans.

The research methodology employed must provide the opportunity to generate hard data on the activities of academic deans so that theories can be tested or constructed on empirical foundations. An inductive approach was needed. Other researchers who have attempted to study executive behavior have reached the same conclusion:

We have hewed close to an inductive procedure. Given our desire to describe executive action accurately, we sought to let the descriptive materials speak loudly to the theory. We think this is fundamentally necessary if organization theory is to be grounded in the study of organizational behavior. (Dubin & Spray, 1964, p. 108)

Rather, I suggest, we encourage studies of deans-and-deanships-in-context that are maximally inclusive of the known and hypothetically relevant parameters of person, interpersonal, institutional processes, and agenda, to name only a conventional few. Such comprehensive case analyses should provide better illumination for the particular dean and institution. (Coladarci, 1980, p. 126)

### Premise Three

A number of methodologies were used previously to study executive behavior, and they were considered for this study as well. During this process each of them was considered and deemed inappropriate for this research. The methodologies are discussed below.

Interview and Questionnaires. To ask deans what they do transfers the responsibility of the research to them, making them the researcher. Danger exists because the description offered could be normative rather than descriptive. Therefore, deans may provide a distorted picture of their activities. However, interviews were used as a research aid to gather supplemental data (Dexter, 1970; Fontana & Frey, 1994).

Diaries. A popular method employed requires the subject to record activity tabulations on a number of parameters. The standard procedure is that the researcher would provide precoded pads, listing the set of words from which the subject is to choose. An advantage is that the diary approach makes it possible to study many subjects for extended time periods. However, the disadvantages are: there are limitations on what can be studied, the neat categories required for diary recording are not characteristic of executive behavior, and the subject would be far too busy to record properly. The most noted studies on executive behavior employing this method are: Carlson (1951), Burns (1954), Dubin and Spray (1964), Horne and Lupton (1965), and Stewart (1967).

Activity Sampling. This method requires the behavior studied to be broken down into predetermined categories, and then the researcher performs a large number of momentary observations of the individuals being studied. The following conditions should be fulfilled: the

observations must be momentary and must be made at randomly selected times, the subject should not be affected by the observer's presence, and the type of events and behavior to be observed should be defined carefully. This method was employed by Kelly (1964) in his article "The Study of Executive Behaviour by Activity Sampling."

#### Premise Four

Considering the multiple types of academic deans (Dill, 1980; Gould, 1964; Griffiths, 1980), it is unrealistic to think one could obtain a representative sample of deans. The sample size would be entirely too large. Deans come from public or private institutions with different purposes, different disciplines, and varying sizes. The deans themselves will vary in years of experience, have been educated at different universities, may have experience in other administrative roles, and may have experience out of the academy (Moore & Sagaria, 1982).

No study therefore could claim to include all types of academic deans. Therefore, it is clear that this research will be exploratory because conclusions will be based on a few academic deans. However, assuming that all academic deans engage in the same basic set of activities (premise one), the theory could then be generalized to all types of deans. Thus, it was concluded that it will be more beneficial to probe deeply into the lives of a few deans, as opposed to attempting to control for the multiple variables of the deanship.

It was decided to limit the research to the deans of colleges of education because: (1) it would be easier to make comparison of deans heading the same or similar units, (2) more research was present on the deans of colleges of education, and (3) the researcher's background and interests lie within the college of education.

A study that involves observational data was undertaken to describe the academic dean as a member within the college of education. Several questions guided this inquiry into the work of the dean:

1. Where do deans spend their time? What kinds of information do they process?

With whom must they work and at whose request? What is the purpose and duration of



each activity and contact? (Mintzberg, 1973)

2. Do deans differentiate their role behavior when dealing with different interest groups? (Pitner, 1978)

3. Are deans distinguishable in their behaviors, performance, abilities, and values? (Premise One)

4. What recurring and useful rules, strategies, or tactics of administrative action are used to cope with the uncertainty surrounding an educational organization? (Pitner, 1978)

### Methodology

To explore answers to the aforementioned questions and to provide descriptions of the dean's work, an empirical study based on direct observations of the academic dean in four colleges of education at research universities was undertaken. A combination of structured and unstructured observations was deemed necessary to provide adequate data. An attempt was made to record completely and objectively everything that occurred. The observed behavior was categorized according to a pre-imposed structure developed by Mintzberg (1968, 1973). Using both structured and unstructured observations, the emphasis remains to obtain accurate descriptions of the deans' executive behavior.

The structured data was collected in one area: chronology records. The chronology record was designed to provide basic data on the design of the work day and to provide a reference to the unstructured (field notes) records. The unstructured records provides details on the nature of the activities performed by the dean, such as details on meetings, telephone calls, and tours. Examples of each record are provided in Tables 1 and 2. This study was designed to focus on the position rather than the person, on the similarities in decanal work with marginal concerns with the differences. More clearly stated, the points of focus were on observed behavior, not on capacities or traits of the dean. Also, the frequency and type of behavior was of concern, but not the evaluation of it.

Table 1. Chronology Record

Time	Activity	Reference	Duration
8:03	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	1	7
8:10	Phone Contact	2	5
8:15	Computer Work	3	10
8:25	Desk Work	4	1
8:26	Computer Work	5	13
8:39	Desk Work	6	17
8:56	Meeting - Unscheduled - Assistant's Office	7	37
9:33	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	8	3
9:36	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	9	12
9:48	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	10	22
10:10	Break	11	1
10:11	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	12	22
10:33	Desk Work	13	1
10:34	Phone Contact	14	1
10:35	Desk Work	15	12
10:47	Meeting - Unscheduled - Dean's Office	16	1
10:48	Desk Work	17	2
10:50	Computer Work	18	8
10:58	Desk Work	19	1
10:59	Meeting - Unscheduled - Assistant's Office	20	2
11:01	Desk Work	21	16
11:17	Break	22	4
11:21	Phone Contact	23	2
11:23	Transition	24	12
11:35	Meeting - Scheduled - President's Office	25	18
11:53	Conference	26	52

Table 2. Field Notes

1. Arrived in the office and meet<sup>104</sup> with his assistant about issues related to the day. (Planning and organizing). They usually meet every morning between 8-9 in an unscheduled fashion but it is loosely scheduled.
2. Retrieved voice mails<sup>105</sup> from his phone.
3. The dean reads over e-mail messages<sup>106</sup> and returned the necessary information to the sender.
4. After finishing with his e-mail, he reads<sup>107</sup> several items he printed out earlier more intently. Taking notes<sup>108</sup> on the printouts during this process.
5. He goes back to his e-mail messages<sup>109</sup> to send a reply to the messages he just read. It appears that he is editing the text of the message.
6. He begins to file away<sup>110</sup> the e-mail printouts. He begins organizing<sup>111</sup> the piles of paper on his desk, and he jots notes<sup>112</sup> on his note pad to help his organizational scheme<sup>113</sup>. He appears to be calmer today than yesterday. The anxiety of being gone for over a week had him on edge. He shuffles the folders around<sup>114</sup> on his desk and finally picks one up to write on it. It appears that he has so much to do that he does not know what to do first. He organizes his office<sup>115</sup>, picking up and moving some of the piles to other portions of the room. This is done in anticipation of his meeting with his assistant.
7. He then leaves the office to get his assistant. The meetings<sup>116</sup> are scheduled but not scheduled. They block an hour or two with the understanding that they would meet and plan and organize for the day. While over there they have a conversation<sup>117</sup> about certain matters as well. Business seems to take place just about anywhere. No matter where they are or when they think of it, they do it.
8. They then move to his office to take care of their ritual planning and organizing<sup>118</sup> meeting. They talk<sup>118.1</sup> about directions to his 12:00 workshop, which is off campus.
9. A former employee stopped by to chat for a moment<sup>119</sup>. She works for the government now and they do catch-up chit-chat.
10. The meeting resumes after the former employee leaves the Dean's office. They continue to refine their plans for the visiting scholar<sup>120</sup> previously discussed yesterday. He looks<sup>121</sup> for the article written by the scholar in his desk files and his file cabinet in the work area outside of his office. They discuss a couple of budget allocation<sup>122</sup> issues. Also, they discuss a future training<sup>123</sup> and development session (Expert). The associate provost is requesting additional money<sup>124</sup> for a project that they already committed to (Politics). Reference letter<sup>125</sup>. He quickly consults the e-mail message<sup>126</sup> that is on his computer about the matter. They talk about a private gift<sup>127</sup> for additional scholarships. A marketing proposal is reviewed<sup>128</sup> and is okayed. A discussion about attending an awards ceremony<sup>129</sup> in which some people of the college will receive awards. He delegates a representative to go. Send pictures<sup>130</sup> of an event to participants (Politics). They also discuss a presentation<sup>131</sup> about leadership in non-profit

Table 2. (continued)

organizations (Expert). A new scheduled appointment<sup>132</sup>.

11. He takes a brief break<sup>133</sup> to freshen up his coffee. While out of the office the secretary brings his assistant some letters for him to sign.

12. He comes in with more coffee and signs the letters<sup>134</sup>. They resume business. A discussion about RSVPs<sup>135</sup> for dinner. Forms<sup>136</sup> for faculty members performing consulting activities, in which they receive funds (Expert, Scholar). Conference registrations<sup>137</sup>. They are attempting to get a coffee shop<sup>138</sup> in the college (Entrepreneur). Another college is attempting to do the same thing. The other college is across the street. It could become a competition<sup>139</sup> (Politics). Faculty request for money to represent the college<sup>140</sup>. They talk about developing new guidelines and policies<sup>141</sup> (Policy development). He has to okay a number of financial decisions<sup>142</sup>. Travel related issues<sup>143</sup>. A discussion about a painting or sketch<sup>144</sup> for the building.

13. He starts writing a note card<sup>145</sup> to go with the photos from earlier.

14. He picks up the phone to return a phone call<sup>146</sup>. While doing so he continues to work. He leaves a message<sup>146.1</sup>.

15. Continuing to write the note card<sup>147</sup>. He looks up some of the information on his desk<sup>148</sup>. He then walks the post card<sup>149</sup> and pictures to his assistant to mail them. He comes back in and move from his office desk to his meeting desk to prepare<sup>150</sup> for his workshop. He checks to see if he has enough handouts. Looking over his over-heads<sup>150.1</sup>.

16. One of his Associate deans walk in to hand him a report. He asks her a couple of questions and then she leaves<sup>151</sup>.

17. He returns back to his preparation<sup>152</sup>. He is mentally thinking<sup>153</sup> about his program. Abruptly, he gets up to get his personal calendar<sup>154</sup>, then puts it back.

18. Quickly, he gets back on his e-mail<sup>155</sup>; he is responding to messages. It must be related to his calendar. Once he is done he looks at his calendar on his computer<sup>156</sup>.

19. He moves right back to his desk work<sup>157</sup>. He was actually filling out the consulting schedule sheet<sup>158</sup>. That is why he consulted his calendar.

20. He then walks the form to his assistant<sup>159</sup>. He is stopped<sup>160</sup> by an office worker about a matter.

21. He works on his presentation<sup>161</sup>. His assistant brings in a letter for him to sign<sup>162</sup>. He says "I am glad this is out so fast." He continues to work. He takes notes<sup>163</sup> on his copies as he looks over the materials<sup>163.1</sup>. He looks his schedule over<sup>164</sup> and places his materials in a neat pile. Organizing.

22. He goes to the rest room<sup>165</sup>. His phone rings when he is in the bathroom. After leaving the bathroom he goes to his Assistant's office.

Table 2. (continued)

23. He places a call<sup>166</sup>. It is a return call. He leaves a message<sup>166.1</sup>.

24. He heads off to his meeting<sup>167</sup>. He lets everyone know he is leaving.

25. He walks to Deanship Hall<sup>168</sup> which is the central administration building. Stops<sup>169</sup> by the president's office<sup>169.1</sup> to sign letters. The letters are in reference to a job search.

26. He goes in the all-day session<sup>170</sup> which is already going on. When that session ends he meets people and shakes hands<sup>170.1</sup>. Lunch is served shortly after.

Note. Each activity is identified by a number.

Morris (1973) defines observations as “the act of noting a phenomenon, often with instruments, and recording it for scientific or other purposes” (p. 906). Adler and Adler (1994) provide a more eloquent definition: “Observations thus consists of gathering impressions of the surrounding world through all relevant human faculties” (p. 378). Both sources ultimately state that the researcher must witness the phenomena they are studying.

The techniques of description necessitate adopting the role of an observer. The roles of the observer are categorized into two groups of typologies: classical typology (Gold, 1958) and new conceptualization typology (Adler & Adler, 1987). The classical typology is outlined into three modes through which data can be collected: (1) the participant as observer, (2) the observer as a limited participant, and (3) the observer as a non-participant. The participant as observer is a person who is entitled to a role in the system they intend to study. The role of the observer as a limited participant differs in that the observer does not naturally occupy a role, but is permitted for the purpose of the research. The observer as non-participant is when the researcher makes every effort not to impinge upon the social system (Gold, 1958).

The roles of the new conceptualization typology are: (1) the complete member researcher, (2) the active member researcher, and (3) the peripheral member researcher. The complete member researcher's role is fulfilled by those who study scenes where they are already members or become genuine members during the course of the research. The active

member researcher's roles are fulfilled by researchers in the setting who assume responsibilities to help advance the group, but does not commit to group values. The peripheral member researcher role observes and interacts closely enough with members to establish an insider's identity, without becoming too involved with the group's membership (Adler & Adler, 1987).

The researcher assumed a non-participant status role. Three strategies were employed to gather information on the structure and content of the dean's work: structured observation, unstructured observation, and open-ended interviews to gather supplemental information (i.e., institutional norms). The structured data collected concentrated on the patterns of activities outlined in the chronology records used. The unstructured data included detailed descriptions of critical and interesting activities, exhibits of correspondence, and background notes relevant to activities. Lastly, the open-ended interviews occurred at the end of the work day to seek clarification on any unclear activities during the course of the day.

Preliminary data was collected before any formal research activities began. The following data was collected before actual observations began:

#### One Month of Scheduled Appointments

Help from the dean's assistant was enlisted to collect information on all scheduled meetings that took place during the course of one month, preferably the month that included the week of observations. This information was used to determine whether the work week under study in typical or atypical.

#### Information about the College

Information that was requested included the organizational chart, appropriate articles, annual reports, and faculty handbook. This information was used to develop an understanding of the environment of the dean, to provide insight into potential questions that may surface during observations, and to become familiar with the names of members of the dean's administrative team.

### Information about the Dean

Information was collected on the dean's background, personality, approximate working hours, work-related activities at home, administrative style, etc. A curriculum vitae, published materials authored by the dean, and interviews via telephone with the dean and/or assistant to obtain the remaining information was requested. This information was used to become familiar with the dean and to prepare for the actual week of observations.

### Hawthorne Effects

Hawthorne effects are of interest to any study utilizing observational techniques. Hawthorne effects are unanticipated results due to the presence of a researcher (Adler & Adler, 1994). For the most part, Hawthorne effects had little influence on the data. This study focused on the structure and content of the dean's work, not on the dean's style. Basic activities of the dean's week will not change because of the presence of an observer. These activities (i.e., meetings, phone calls, and mail) will have been set up in advance or would not be re-routed because of an observer. It could be argued that fewer meetings and phone calls would take place during the week of observations; however, it is submitted that the dean would not stop running the college for a week. Therefore, ultimately the Hawthorne effects will have very little significance in this study.

### Selection of the Academic Deans

Five factors were taken into consideration when choosing the research subjects: position, experience, demographics, type of organization, and reputation of organization. Position: the subjects had to be employed presently as an academic dean. Experience: new deans were excluded from consideration, because their work patterns may not be stabilized. Therefore, all subjects were required to be in their second year of the deanship. Demographics: ethnicity and gender were taken into consideration when selecting subjects. A balance between the present demographic representation of the deanship and subject selections were of particular interest. Therefore, two white females, one white male, and one African American male were

chosen. Type of organization: given all the possible combinations of institutional types available, one type was chosen to make comparisons. The sample included four public research institutions. Reputation of the organization: it is desirable to study well-known colleges, because the results promise to be interesting and insightful. All deans are located in or have been dean at one of the top 50 colleges or schools of education as identified by U.S. News and World Report.

One associate dean and one department chair in the college of education at State University were enlisted for pilot studies. These pilot studies do not suggest that associate deans, department chairs, and deans perform the same activities. The purpose of the pilot was to refine the data collection instruments and to permit the researcher to perfect the data collection process in a familiar environment. The four subjects were contacted, the study briefly described, and copies of the research proposal with an explanatory cover letter was sent to the deans who expressed interest (see Appendix A).

The four deans who participated in the actual research were:

#### Dean A

Dean A is a white male married with children. He has a very diverse educational background with a B.A. in political science, M.B.A., and Ph.D. in an educational executive program. Prior to his appointment to the deanship, he has held the following positions: interim dean, associate dean, department chair, professor, director of administrative programs and teacher education, associate professor, executive vice president and director in the private sector, president of an airfreight company, associate director of field training of service bureau, institutional researcher, head resident, and research scholar. Dean A has held these positions at a total of three universities and two private sector companies. Dean A is involved in leadership on the state, national, and international level. He is the director of a national research center, serves on numerous editorial boards, and consults internationally. The dean has received numerous honors and recognitions including: Kellogg National Fellow, Fulbright scholar



award, and the Danforth foundation school leadership fellowship. At the time of his appointment, the dean had published 17 books and monographs, 90 journal articles and book chapters, and presented at 67 national and international conferences. Also, the dean had been the principal or co-principal investigator on 27 grants.

Dean A is presently dean at a research I land grant university with an organizational theme of maximizing human potential and performance. The college of education offers programs of study in the following areas: teacher education, curriculum and instructional technology, community health education, exercise and sports science, industrial technology, and educational leadership and policy studies. Also, the college is the executive home to four national centers. Lastly, the prominent research areas are: community colleges and higher education, educational administration, instructional technology, learner-centered education, math and science education, and multicultural and international education.

#### Dean B

Dean B is an African American male married with children. His educational background includes a B.S. in physical education and history, M.A. in education, and an Ed.D in teacher education and curriculum development. Prior to his appointment, the dean has held the following positions: dean and professor, dean, associate professor and chair, educational consultant, assistant professor, postdoctoral administrative fellow, and teacher coach. Dean B has held these positions at a total of four universities, one state commission, and one school district. The dean has received numerous honors and awards including: Fulbright scholar, institute for educational management (Harvard University), and national Ford Foundation fellowship. At the time of appointment to his present deanship (his third term as a dean), the dean had 21 journal articles, seven book chapters and proceedings, and 100 conference presentations. The dean is professionally active on many national boards and committees, as a consultant, and serves as an editorial reviewer.

Dean B is presently dean and endowed chair for teacher education at a research II metropolitan university with an urban education mission. The school of education offers undergraduate education to prospective teachers who earn two degrees at the same time, one from the school of education and the other degree in their area of specialization. Certifications are offered in the following areas: prekindergarten, elementary, biology, chemistry, earth science, english, mathematics, physics, social studies, music education, foreign languages, and physical education. Graduate programs at the master's, educational specialist, doctoral levels are offered at the school of education. Programs are offered in the following areas: counseling and guidance, counseling psychology, curriculum and instruction, educational administration, educational research and psychology, higher education administration, reading education, special education, and interdisciplinary studies.

#### Dean C

Dean C is a white female married with one child. She has a diverse educational background with a B.A. in political science, M.Ed. in communications, and Ph.D. in educational administration. Prior to her present appointment the dean has held the following positions: professor, associate dean for academic affairs, acting associate dean for undergraduate studies, staff director of senior policy consultant with a state commission, associate professor, assistant professor, visiting professor, administrative intern, administrative research associate, director of instructional resources, english and american government teacher, and assistant principal. Dean C has held these positions at a total of five universities, one state commission, and five school districts. The dean has received numerous honors and recognitions including: Institute for Management of Lifelong Education (Harvard University) and Marcia Gutlenta fellow. The dean has been the principal or co-principal investigator on 16 grants. At the time of her appointment, the dean had 18 journal articles, six book chapters, one book, and 48 conference presentations. The dean is professionally active on national committees and boards, as a consultant, and serves as an editorial reviewer.

Dean C is presently dean at a research I state university. The undergraduate program in education has been deemed notable by the 1999 Fiske Guide to College. Also, the school of education ranks in the top 25 graduate schools of education according to the March 29, 1999, issue of U.S. News and World Report.

#### Dean D

Dean D is a white female married with one child. Her educational background includes a B.A. in political science, M.A. in educational research and evaluation, and Ph.D. in social foundations of education. Prior to her present appointment, the dean has held the following positions: professor, director of the division of educational studies, visiting professor, associate professor, director of research, assistant professor, and coordinator of educational process studies. Dean D has held these positions at a total of three universities, and one state association. At the time of her appointment to the deanship, the dean had published 13 book chapters, 10 monographs, 32 journal articles, and 70 conference presentations. The dean has been the principal or co-principal investigator on 14 contracts and grants. Dean D is professionally active on national committees and boards, as a consultant, and serves as an editorial reviewer.

Dean D is presently dean at a research I state university. On surveys conducted by U.S. News and World Report, the college of education has consistently been ranked in the top 10 percent among the 223 graduate programs of education. The college offers programs of study in the following areas: counselor education, curriculum and instruction, planning policy and leadership studies, and psychological and quantitative foundations. The college is the home to several nationally recognized centers.

#### Conclusion

Each dean was observed for five consecutive working days, except for one case when the observation were split between two weeks (Wednesday through Friday and Monday through Tuesday). Field notes (unstructured data) were taken, and each evening the notes were

transcribed into a computer file. Structured data (chronology records) of the day's activities were aggregated as well. A detailed analysis of these data follows in the next two chapters. Chapter IV describes how the unstructured data were analyzed, presents data, and provides discussion. Lastly, Chapter V describes how the structured data was analyzed, presents data, and presents a discussion.

## CHAPTER IV

### DEFINING DECANAL ROLES

What roles does the dean play in his or her college? The answer to this question is basic to the management of colleges; however, the literature on the deanship does not provide an empirically derived answer. Moreover, the answer to this question will help build a theory of what deans do, and add to the existing knowledge base of what executives do in general. As stated in Chapter I, the dean's roles are gleaned from the job advertisement and university regulations. More accurately stated, the job qualifications and requirements are developed by search committees for the former, and university committees for the latter. For the most part, these committees consist of faculty members who may or may not be familiar with the dean's work. Consequently, words such as plan, budget, and implement are frequently used to describe what deans should do.

The widely accepted words used to explain what deans do are based on generalities and assumptions; therefore, they are vague. These words (please see Chapter I) places a label on the dean's work, but they have never been explained. For example, it is reasonable to expect the dean to "collaborate" with individuals within and outside the college, but what other meaning does this word convey? What does a dean actually do when "collaborating" with others? While the dictionary can clearly delineate the meaning of "collaborate," can the dean do so in his or her daily activities? Empirical research has done little to develop meaningful relationships between many of the words used to describe the dean's work and actual decanal activities. Clearly, there is a need to find better words to describe the roles deans play in their

college. The description of these roles should be derived from empirical research. Therefore, it should be possible to relate the set of roles back to all observable decanal activities.

Henry Mintzberg has been the leading authority on executive behavioral theory since he published his Ph.D. dissertation entitled The Manager at Work: Determining his Activities, Roles, and Programs by Structured Observations in 1968. Later, he used that work as the basis for a number of journal publications and his subsequent book The Nature of Managerial Work (1973), which has been the definitive piece on what executives actually do. The title of the book is misleading; it really details the nature of executives' work. The findings derived in the two aforementioned publications is the foundation on which this study is based. Briefly, Mintzberg (1973) conducted a one-week observational study of five managers (executives). He divided managerial activities (executive behavior) into three groups: interpersonal relationships, transfer of information, and decision making, from which he delineated ten roles from these areas. The roles of figurehead, liaison, and leader came from his interpersonal roles, which placed the executive in a unique position to obtain information. The three informational roles (monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson) give the executive unique access to information, and coupled with special status and authority place the executive in a position where organizational decisions are made. The decisional roles were entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. A detailed explanation of each role will be provided later in the chapter. Mintzberg's study also reported the distribution of the activities of the executives.

The literature on executive behavior has been very helpful in supplying benchmark data for which to base this present study on academic deans. In thoroughly reviewing the literature, it stands to reason that it was time to re-test empirically Mintzberg's theory on executive behavior for three reasons. First, when Mintzberg initially published his study in 1968 he had 13 roles; however, when he published his book in 1973 there were only ten roles. In one of his fairly recent publications, Mintzberg (1990) remained consistent with his previously published ten roles. Conversely, Mintzberg is referenced often by other authors who have attributed him

with delineating 12 executive roles. For example, Starling (1998) in his book describes 12 roles, for which he cited Mintzberg.

Second, it has been 32 years since Mintzberg originally delineated these roles. It is reasonable to think that the nature of executives' work has changed since. It is worth noting that Sally Helgesen (1990) replicated Mintzberg's methodology with four female executives, but focused more on the overall executive behavior instead of specific roles (see Chapter V for further details). Hence, this chapter will re-test Mintzberg's executive roles with present-day executives. Third, these executive roles will be tested with academic executives to see how what they do is similar to or dissimilar than business executives.

To expand the work of executive behavior by Mintzberg (1973) to academic deans, role theory was employed. Role theory is based on several underlying propositions. They are: (1) some behaviors are patterned and are characteristic of persons within contexts (i.e., roles); (2) roles are often associated with sets of persons who share a common identity (i.e., social position); (3) persons are often aware of roles, and to some extent roles are governed by the fact of their awareness (i.e., role expectations); (4) roles persist because of the functions they provide and because they are often imbedded within larger social systems; and (5) persons must be taught roles (i.e., socialized) and may find either joy or sorrow in the performance of them (Biddle, 1979). This study will focus on propositions one and two.

The academic dean's position will be the focus of this inquiry. The notion of position is one of the most widely used concepts in role theory (Biddle & Thomas, 1966), and most writers in the field have followed the example set by Linton (1936) of defining roles in relationship to a position. Position is a collectively recognized category of persons from whom the basis for such differentiation is their common attribute, their common behavior, or the common reactions of others toward them (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Therefore, it is possible to confine the definition of role to those behaviors associated with a position and that of a position to those persons who exhibit a role. Perhaps the most common definition is that role is the set

of prescriptions defining what the behavior of a position member should be, conceiving roles as “behavior referring to normative expectations associated with a position in a social system” (Allen & van de Vliert, 1984, p. 3).

The variable of study is the executive roles of academic deans. A variable is some quantity of values which may be employed to order some phenomenon, event, or process. In role theory the variable is some quantity with respect to which the phenomenal referents or properties of role may differentially order (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Therefore, executive behavior can be described in terms of activities. The units of analysis are the activities performed by the dean. Activities may be described orally or in writing; they may be photographed, predicted, recorded, measured, and evaluated (Shartle, 1958). The field notes data were analyzed for activities performed by the deans, and organized into matrices to identify which roles confirmed or conflicted with Mintzberg’s theory.

Role conformity was used to compare the dean’s roles against the executive roles generated by Mintzberg (1973). Conformity connotes compliance to some pattern of behavior; sometimes that pattern is conceived as the modeling of behavior by others. Conformity is achieved when a person correctly imitates the role of another. Studies of conformity generally investigate the relationship between expectations and behaviors. Role expectations are certain normative obligations and responsibilities of one’s role. The role conformity phase will expose similar and dissimilar behavior between roles identified in the present study and executive roles previously found by Mintzberg (1973). The literature of role theory contains numerous references to role as some particular common behavior of persons (Biddle, 1979; Burt, 1982); “shared” and “patterned” are other terms that often have the same meaning, while “unique” and “deviant” have the opposite connotation’ (Biddle & Thomas, 1966, p. 59). In short, the study will take the structure and content of the dean’s daily activities to delineate roles and then aggregate them to form the executive behavior of academic deans. Figure 1 visualizes this data analysis conceptual model.



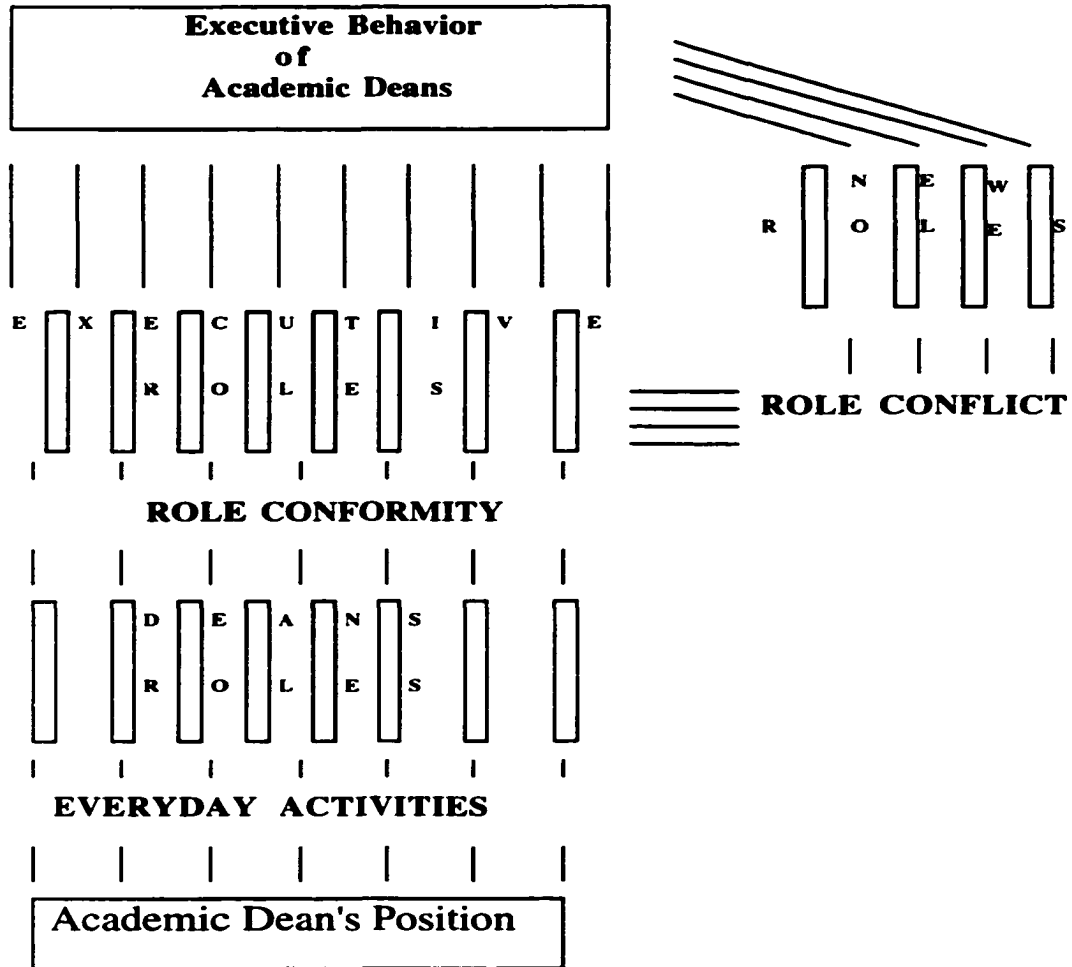


Figure 1. Data Analysis Conceptual Model

Figure 2 displays the set of ten roles Mintzberg (1973) published in The Nature of Managerial Work. After undertaking the data analysis of each kind of activity for this study Mintzberg's roles were reaffirmed; however, additional roles were added and categorized to accommodate academic deans. It must be noted that the new set of roles do not represent criticism of Mintzberg's theory, but rather use it as a foundation to advance executive behavioral theory. Moreover, this view of executive roles presented in this chapter is one among many possible views. The delineation of these roles is a categorization of dean's work days broken down with the use of activity analysis. Subsequently, the roles are derived from an observational study of four academic deans.

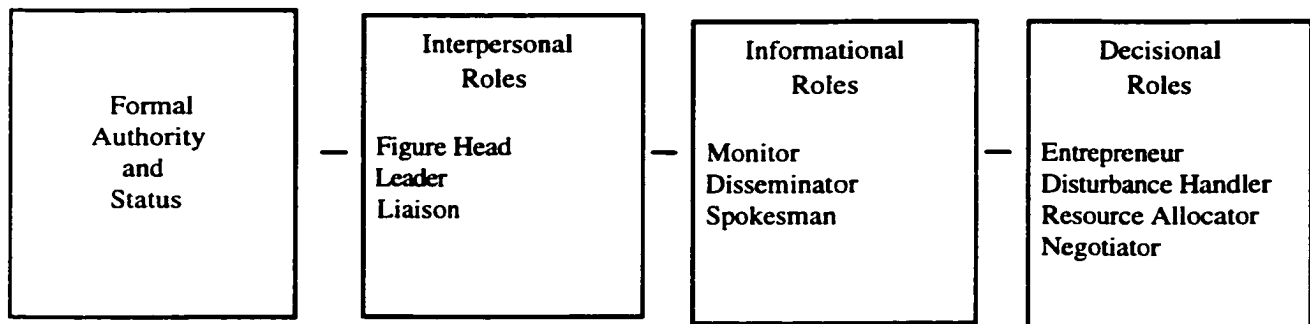
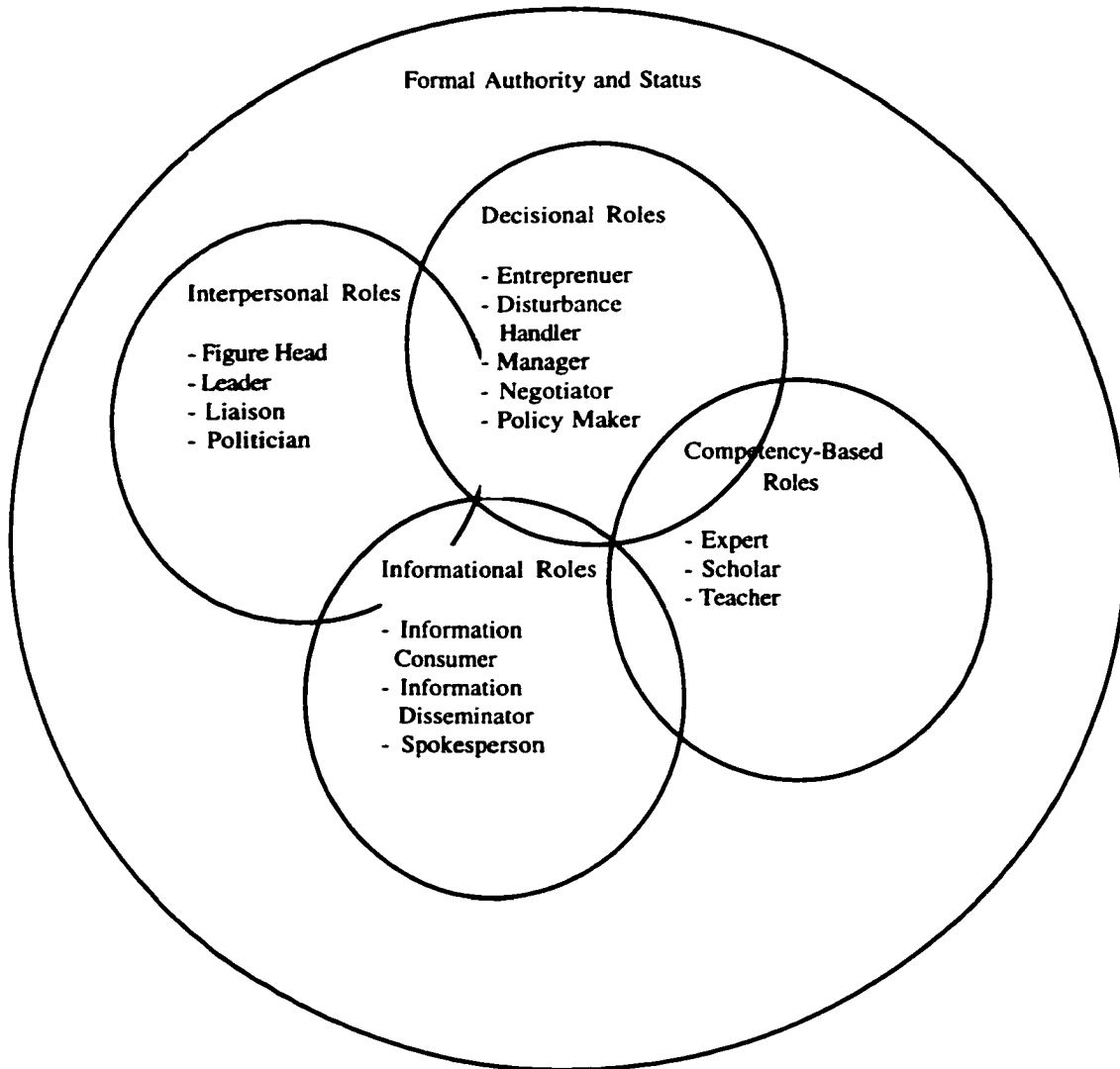


Figure 2. Mintzberg's Executive Behavioral Theory

A description of the new set of roles is visualized in Figure 3. It includes 15 roles, which fall into four categories: interpersonal, informational, decisional, and competency-based. The four categories and 15 roles are described in detail in the following section. The field notes data collected during the periods of observation are used to illustrate these roles.



**Figure 3. Academic Executive Behavioral Theory**

### Interpersonal Roles

In an organizational setting interpersonal roles pertain to relationships with others. Each role is shaped by and linked to the dean's status and authority. Formal authority gives rise to the power and status of the dean's role. The following roles are categorized together because they require the development of interpersonal relationships. These activities include ceremonies, request from college personnel, and replies to requests. Moreover, these activities fall to the dean because he or she is the highest-ranking figure in the college. Because of this status, the dean has unique access to certain personal interactions.

#### The Dean as Figurehead

The figurehead role involves the handling of ceremonial and symbolic activities for the college. Because of the formal authority and status, the dean is a symbol of the college and must perform a number of duties because of it. These activities are not complicated, and do not require informational, decisional, or competency-based abilities. Consider the following activities as each are related to the figurehead role:

One dean gives the welcome at an annually hosted lecture by a visiting scholar. After the scholar's lecture the dean presents the scholar with a plaque and a university t-shirt. The dean, department chair, and visiting scholar took pictures. He then attends the reception after the lecture. While there he mingles and discusses the lecture with attendees.

A college employee from the budget office walks in a budget document that needed signing by the dean. The dean sits down and signs a few documents.

After giving the charge to the Teacher Education committee, the dean provides information about teacher education on the state and national levels. She clearly expresses the importance of the committee.

The activities may not appear to be central to the job of the dean. However, in each case the dean must be involved. Some activities are required by law such as signing official documents, while in other cases the dean's participation is considered a social courtesy (i.e., programs, banquets, and major events).

### The Dean as Leader

The college looks to its formal head for motivation, communication, encouragement, and influence. The direction and vision of the college is defined by the dean. Leadership involves interpersonal relationships with college personnel. The dean relies heavily on the residual power bestowed by the faculty to negotiate this role. Leadership is clearly one of the most significant roles the dean and other executives perform. In observing the activities of the leader role, it is apparent that leadership elements permeate across the other roles. The dean may set out to perform a basic activity, but the undergirding tone is set by the leader role. The following are examples of the leader role activities:

A faculty member wants to seek the dean's okay for a hire.  
The dean helps the teacher education faculty assist the school district with tactics to derail deaccreditation of the district.

The dean provides insight about the search process for a search committee chair.

The dean provides information to the Professional Development Schools representatives in reference to seeking additional state funding.

### The Dean as Liaison

The leader role previously discussed speaks well to vertical or authoritative relationships within the college. However, the liaison role introduces the horizontal relationship that deans develop. The status associated with the dean's position enables the incumbent to develop an array of professional relationships with numerous individuals or groups outside of the college.

Deans have no social equal within the college; therefore they interact frequently with other deans, provosts, and presidents. This phenomenon is supported by Homans' hypothesis that "... The higher a man's social rank, the more frequently he interacts with persons outside his own group" (1950, pp. 185-186). By developing these contacts, the dean is privy to important organizational information. The dean builds and maintains this network of contacts in

various ways: attending conferences, social events, service work, external board work, and networking. Below are liaison role examples:

The dean meets with a former employee who now works for a governmental agency to obtain important information that would help the college lobby the senate for additional funding.

A call is forwarded to the dean. The caller is an old colleague who is asking the dean about his transition to his new job. The caller informed the dean about his new book during the course of the conversation.

The dean has a breakfast meeting with a director of a charter school which falls under the auspices of the school of education. They talk about how they can strengthen the relationship between the charter school and school of education.

After lunch the dean attends a Board of Directors meeting for Junior Achievement.

The dean is afforded the ability to develop special external linkages because of his or her authority and status. He or she connects the college to its professional environment. This is achieved from the special information obtained by the dean from his or her outside contacts.

The liaison roles requires time commitments to foster and develop these relationships.

#### The Dean as Politician

The politician role requires the dean to shape the environment in the college and university, rather than be constrained by it. Nothing is more troubling to a dean than to have a creative idea crushed in the bureaucracy of the university. Unfortunately, the best recommendations are not automatically adopted; political consideration will influence to some degree the decision to adopt or reject an idea. Deans who chose to ignore or fail to understand how power and influence work within the college and at the university will find it difficult to be effective in the job. Whenever there are differences between individuals or departments, scarce resources, and interdependence between the departments one can expect to find politics. The following serve as examples:

At the request of the associate provost the dean provides additional funding for a research project.

The dean sends birthday cards monthly to faculty and staff who are celebrating their birthday. This simple act allows the dean to build a positive rapport with the faculty and staff of the college.

Follow-up post cards are sent to individuals the dean met at a conference the previous week, to reinforce the connection for future opportunities of communication.

The dean has to determine arbitrarily who gets more office space allocated to them and who does not.

### Informational Roles

The second categorical set of roles are informational roles, which entail receiving and transmitting information. As a result of the authority and status of the deanship, the dean is placed in the center of the flow of information of the college. Given his or her wide range of professional relationships the dean emerges as an information broker for the college. Mintzberg used the term “nerve center,” but “information broker” is believed to be more descriptive of the findings of this study.

The information broker term depicts the academic dean’s unique access to internal and external information. Internally, the dean as a generalist has individuals who are specialist reporting to him or her. The formal lines of communication because of the hierarchy develop a broad base of information internally. Externally through the liaison role the dean has access to outsiders who themselves are information brokers for their organization. Therefore, the dean becomes the point person for external information requests. Ultimately, he or she is the information broker for internal and external information needs.

### The Dean as Information Consumer

The information consumer role involves seeking current information from various sources. In this role the dean continually is seeking information that enables him or her to understand better the college and the profession in general. The information is sought to be better prepared to make decisions and to provide the best leadership possible to the college. Mintzberg identified five areas for which information was collected, which were reaffirmed by this study. They are: internal operations, external events, analysis, ideas and trends, and

pressures. Internal operations is information on the progress for operations for the college. External events is when the dean seeks information on other colleges, universities, students, and advancements in the field as to stay competitive in the profession. Analysis consists of various reports that enables the dean to maintain a certain level of expertise in the position. Ideas and trends are the dean's way to garner information from conferences, research, etc., to keep the college on the cutting edge. Pressure is external influence levied on the dean to cultivate specified decisions. The following are examples of the information consumer role:

The dean looks at impressive data about the teacher/interns of the college.

While taking a coffee break, the dean reads a policy perspective newsletter.

Before the faculty meeting the dean places a call to the state accreditation agency to get input on an accreditation issue.

The dean is seeking a copy of a report from the National Center of Educational Information and also permission to replicate the study.

#### The Dean as Informational Disseminator

In the information disseminator role the dean transmits current information to others, both inside and outside the college. Because the dean serves as an information broker, sending information into the college is very important. In conjunction, the dean transmits information among college personnel to help facilitate communication throughout the college. The information disseminator role, coupled with the information consumer role, links the college directly to the professional environment; hence the "information broker" function.

Mintzberg (1973) distinguished two kinds of disseminator information: factual and value. Factual information can be tested to determine whether it is correct or incorrect. The following are examples:

An invitation to the President's reception is forwarded to the associate deans.

The dean cuts out a newspaper story and disseminates it through the office.

Also very important is information from outside contacts representing new ideas and gossip. The following are examples:



A call is received by the dean informing him about a vacant dean's position. Names of potential candidates are solicited.

The dean receives inside information on the deaccreditation of the school district before it goes public.

Value information is not based on right or wrong, but rather preferences. This information reflects the needs of decision makers and those in power. It serves the dean well to keep the college abreast of value statements. Therefore, it is clear what is valued in the college. The following serve as examples:

The dean expresses how she wants the college newsletter to look.

The direction of the charter schools that work with the college is clearly communicated by the dean's vision.

### The Dean as Spokesperson

The spokesperson role pertains to official statements about the college to individuals outside the college. In this role the dean communicates information to the college's professional environment. Because the dean has access to a broad base of information, he or she is called upon to speak on behalf of the college. As the information broker of the college, the information is available to do so effectively. In the spokesperson role the dean may be required to lobby on behalf of the college, serve as the public relations person, or be the expert on matters related to the college's mission.

The dean must keep two groups informed: key constituents and the professional environment. The first are the main stakeholders externally (i.e., Board of Regents, President, Provost, and Department Chairs). The second group is the professional environment represented by other colleges, professional organizations, parents, and students. The following are examples of the spokesperson role:

A presentation is prepared by the dean about the college to be made at the President's Council.

The dean performs an interview with the campus television station about the progress made on the new building.

In summary, the term information broker really captures the essence of these three informational roles. By virtue of being in a position of unique information flow, the dean is best equipped to make decisions for the college. Therefore, the dean is now prepared to start making decisions. The next set of roles will focus on decision making.

### Decisional Roles

The informational roles are only a means to an end. The next step is decision making. The dean plays a central role in this process because of the formal authority bestowed on the position; he or she is the only one who can commit the college to a new course of action. The most significant decisions for the college are reserved for the dean (i.e., authorization, negotiations, and resource allocation). One of the most crucial activities a dean performs is making decisions. Mintzberg (1973) indicates that executives (deans in this case) must have a strategy for making decisions. The terminology used was “strategy-making,” which means having a “process by which significant organizational decisions are made and interrelated” (p. 77). A dean’s failure to make a decision in a timely manner can jeopardize the college’s mission.

The dean is central in the decision making process for several reasons: (1) the dean has formal authority so it is implicit that official commitments are his or her responsibility; (2) as the information broker the dean is best suited to provide guidance to the college; (3) the dean can make decisions that reflect the values of the key constituents and the professional environment; and (4) the dean can reinforce the mission by implementing “strategy-making” decisions.

### The Dean as Entrepreneur

The entrepreneur role involves the initiation of change. More specifically, it relates to the change activities undertaken to improve the college in some fashion. The dean acts as his or her business counterparts by exploiting opportunities to advance the college. The process begins by scanning the professional environment and college for areas that need change. After

discovering the problem or area for improvement the dean must decide whether to pursue it or not. Once undertaken, the dean can be involved in a number of different ways. First, the dean may retain total responsibility for carrying out the project. Second, the dean may delegate portions of the project out, retaining some responsibilities. Lastly, the dean may relinquish all involvement in the project by total delegation. The entrepreneur role is demonstrated by the following:

A marketing proposal is reviewed to build a coffee and snack shop in the college of education.

The dean meets with a department chair about a possible development of a joint program with the college of Liberal Arts and Sciences.

#### The Dean as Disturbance Handler

The disturbance handler role involves resolving conflicts between and among college personnel, students, departments, and outsiders as well. A disturbance is a set of internal and external pressures exerted on the college. These disturbances are involuntary situations and change that are beyond the dean's control. An uncontrollable occurrence is an obvious disturbance, but some disturbances are a result of problems or conflicts that have ignored. However, when the disturbance is originated the dean must act accordingly to facilitate corrections.

Mintzberg (1973) identified three types of common disturbances which were reaffirmed in this study of academic deans: (1) conflicts between subordinates (college personnel); (2) exposures difficulties; and (3) resources losses. Conflict between faculty and staff occur because of personality conflicts, scarce resources, and research paradigms. Exposure difficulties are conflicts between other colleges and outside entities. Resources losses are sudden resources constraints.

Timing is very important in reference to handling disturbances. Because disturbances come up suddenly, the urgency to handle them is critical. Often the dean does not recognize the disturbances for himself or herself, but rather they usually are brought to the dean's attention

by others. Therefore, the dean has to generate instant information and communication to address the disturbance. As a result, disturbances take precedence over the types of activities.

The following are examples of the disturbance handler:

The college receives a complaint from a participant who attended the homecoming tailgating event.

The dean attends a faculty grievance meeting. A member of the dean's faculty felt he should get more merit pay, so he is contesting it.

### The Dean as Manager

The manager's role pertains to decisions about how to allocate people, time, equipment, budget, and other resources to attain desired outcomes. Mintzberg (1973) originally named this role "resource allocator." By using resources in a very broad sense, in essence this role captured just about all the activities of the college. Therefore, the dean assumes managerial characteristics in carrying out the role previously called resource allocator.

Ultimately, the dean is directing and carrying out the business or affairs of the college, which is the definition of being a manager.

There are two reasons for the proposed name change of this role. First, the name resource allocator can elicit a number of other meanings to the reader. Second, Mintzberg (1973) studied executives but called them managers, which was an oversight of the original study. Therefore, it can be posited that Mintzberg felt the manager's role was implicit in the title.

Deans also must be cognizant that resources are not always allocated, but must be preserved sometimes to avoid losing resources. During this discussion it is important to note that other members of the dean's office staff handle the meticulous details and extensive analysis to help with resource-related decisions. However, the dean must approve the preliminary suggestions by making the final decision. In this study, there is evidence that the manager's role covers several elements: scheduling of time, budgeting, development, authorizing actions, planning, organizing, coordinating, supervising, and evaluating.

**Scheduling of Time.** One of the most important resources the dean can allocate is his or her time. The deans make decisions on how his or her time is allocated, which ultimately dictates how others' time also is allocated. The allocation of time sets the priorities of the college. Issues that are high in priority receive more time, and issues low in priority receive less time. By examining scheduling decisions, one will begin to see how the allocation of time is important. More specifically, the opportunity costs of the dean's and college's time are realized.

**Budgeting.** The budgeting process is the most widely recognized form of resource allocation. The budget process of the university is structured and already in place. The dean has to familiarize himself or herself with this process. Deans devote much time and energy preparing and adhering to the budget. The dean is faced with a budget of a given size and with a number of well-defined projects requiring funds. Cost and benefit data on each line item and project is generated to determine which ones will receive funding and how much.

**Development.** In the budgeting process the dean is not only required to spend money wisely, but also to develop additional financial resources. For the most part, this is the development of private donations to the college. The dean sits down with the college's development officer to establish a plan or method to solicit additional funds. The dean may have a staff member who is primarily responsible for this area, but the dean must provide the vision to guide the process. The vision of the development process will correspond with the strategic plan of the college because most good plans require money to achieve them.

**Authorization.** The dean has control over all major and significant decisions because he or she has to give the final authorization. Merely by having the power for authorization, the dean can insure coherent and consistent decisions for the college. The dean's involvement in this process can occur at the onset or at the decision making stage. The nature of the decision will dictate when the dean will provide authorization or not.

**Planning.** Planning is key in the management of a college; it is usually synonymous with success. Theoretically, planning is the ability to see opportunities or threats in the future and to address them by making decisions in the present. Practically, planning is establishing objectives and courses of action before any action is taken. Planning is an activity the dean engages in every day, often with giving it little thought. The dean provides a blueprint for the college to provide guidance to reach its future goals. Several types of planning are employed during this process: strategic, tactical, functional, and operational plans.

**Organizing.** The organizing element of the deanship is threefold: structural, systemic, and personal. First, the administrative structure of the college is molded by the dean's preferences. During the initial stages of the deanship, the dean is usually afforded the opportunity to restructure to some degree how the college is organized. Also, replacing people in key administrative positions is within the purview of the dean's authority. Second, endeavors of the college must be planned systematically with unified efforts for the many facets of the college to work in unison. Lastly, personal organization is important for the deans themselves. This personal organization is manifested by self-management. The dean must be extremely well organized to carry out his or her duties for the day. The dean spends a lot of his or her time preparing to do the activities required daily. Before the dean does any activity, he or she spends time somewhere in the day preparing to perform the activity.

**Coordinating.** Because the work of the college is divided among departments and divisions, it needs to be coordinated. Coordination is the process of achieving unity of action among interdependent activities. Coordination is a very hard process to achieve in a college. Colleges are divided into main departments, with sub-units or divisions, which then have areas of specialization. However, coordination is required for these interdependent groups to achieve a common goal or vision for the college. In colleges, some departments are more interdependent than others, so the difficulty of coordination varies from situation to situation.

For example, placement services may be centralized in the college filtering all through one office. The other extreme is each department assuming full responsibility for placement.

**Supervising.** The dean coordinates, directs, and inspects on a continuous basis the various elements of the college. This can deal with having oversight on faculty, staff, departments, and projects. There are a variety of reasons the dean assumes the position of supervisor: the interest and responsibility of the aforementioned components of the college ultimately fall to the dean, the dean may have a strong personal interest, the dean may be directly responsible for the department or program, and any projects requiring large financial commitment will require the dean's formal supervision.

**Evaluation.** As a result of the dean's broad-based control of the college, he or she is required to be an evaluator. Therefore, the dean is required to examine and judge the worth, quality, significance, amount, degree, and matter of progress toward set goals. The college, just as all formal organizations, is required to evaluate their performance. The dean evaluates the progress of the college, departments, programs, faculty, staff, and occasionally students. Two kinds of feedback are possible: positive or negative feedback. Positive feedback represents the fact that the college is moving forward with its agenda. Negative feedback contains areas that needs change or re-directing.

### **The Dean as Negotiator**

The negotiator role involves formal negotiations and informal bargaining to attain outcomes for the dean's college. On varying occasions the college will find itself in negotiations with either colleges, other units on campus, other universities, and businesses and school districts. It is often the case that the dean will have to lead these conversations, while on other occasions the dean will be in the center of intra-college negotiations. The dean may be requested to mediate internal negotiations as well, which are even more crucial than external negotiations. The internal negotiations will not go away they must be solved. The following are examples:

The dean is reviewing a marketing proposal of several moving companies. The college will move to a new building the next semester. Presently, the dean is negotiating with several companies to determine who will receive the contract.

The college and the college across the street are both attempting to have a coffee shop built in their college. However, they both cannot win the bid. Therefore, presently the colleges are attempting to bargain with each other around other elements as well, such as trading the copy center for the coffee shop. Presently, the dean's college has the copy center, and the college across the street has to come over to use it.

### The Dean as Policy Maker

All colleges have policies, which are statements of goals and objectives. However, some colleges are more systematic with their approach to formulating policy and are very strict in the way they express and enforce them. The college's dean generally must decide whether new policies are needed or if the old ones need modification. The dean may not be directly responsible for the policy development. Moreover, the dean may delegate the development of policy to a committee or department. Some policy demands will come to the dean via the faculty, provost, or president, while others can come from internal sources. The following is a policy maker example:

The dean tells his assistant there is a need to develop policy for faculty requesting money to represent the college. Presently, there is no policy in place that addresses who pays when the college asks the faculty members to represent them at a conference or program.

### Competency-Based Roles

The interpersonal, informal, and decisional roles of Mintzberg have been found to be essential for deans. However, this study has found that professional competence is equally crucial; therefore, three competency-based roles have been delineated. Spencer and Spencer (1993) defined competency as "an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation" (p. 9). Basically put, competency predicts who will do well or poorly in the job.

Competency-based roles involve the ability of the dean to function effectively in performing the duties and tasks of the position. The competency of the dean's position



involves two dimensions. First, there are proficiencies specific to the deanship: (1) basic and specific knowledge of the disciplines within the college; (2) technical skills necessary to run the organization and administrative components of the college; and (3) ability to solve problems encountered during the process. Second, the concept of competency represents characteristics of the person assuming the position such as: intellectual ability, personality traits, motivation, attitudes, and values. Through examination of the first dimension three new roles were delineated: expert, scholar, and teacher.

### The Dean as Expert

The dean is called upon to play the expert role, because various individuals inside and outside the college seek special advice simply because of the position. As a result, the dean is sought after to answer questions others cannot answer and to solve problems others cannot solve. This special stature is given to the dean for two major reasons: (1) the dean has developed special skills and knowledge because of his or her extensive experience; and (2) the dean is highly informed about how the college operates because of the numerous positions held before the deanship (i.e., assistant, associate, full professor, division head, department chair, etc.) The dean is in great demand as an expert for these two reasons. The following are examples:

The dean was asked to conduct a workshop for department chairs.

The dean is asked to write an external review letter for a colleague who is going up for tenure and promotion.

The dean is nominated to the board of directors of a national organization.

A chair stops the dean about a hiring matter. Presently, there is a hiring freeze at the university. The dean informs him that it does not affect hiring students.

### The Dean as Scholar

Academic deans for the most part come from the faculty. Therefore, they entered the academy through the ranks of the professoriate, from assistant professor to full professor. Hence, the dean has been involved in scholarly activities throughout his or her academic career.

Scholarly activities would include such things as publishing journals articles, books, and presenting at professional conferences. The dean is chosen to be the academic leader of the college. Therefore, the dean must have demonstrated by his or her actions the explanation of quality instruction, research, and public service. The dean is not expected to be as scholarly active as he or she was before assuming the position, but some involvement in scholarly activities is still warranted. Below are examples of the scholar role:

The dean presents at two back-to-back national conferences.

A proposal is written and submitted for a presentation at a national conference by the dean.

Correspondence about a proposal the dean had accepted at a conference was received.

The dean looks through his contract for the future book he will write.

### The Dean as Teacher

For the deans who have lived as full-time faculty members, teaching is an imbedded part of who they are. In their faculty roles they taught classes as part of their work load. For those who worked with graduate programs, they directed graduate student research. Furthermore, teaching was an evaluative component of their tenure and promotion process. Teaching can be defined very broadly as to share or demonstrate knowledge in any venue. However, for the purpose of this role it is defined as any activity to guide the studies of students inside or outside the classroom. Inside the classroom activities naturally would refer to serving as the primary instructor of a course, guest lecturer, or any team teaching approaches. Outside of the classroom activities include chairing master's or doctoral-level students' graduate committee or serving as direct supervisor of research projects involving undergraduate or graduate students. The following are examples:

The dean meets with a doctoral student. They are working on a project together. The student brings in some materials she just received from one of his colleagues. She turns in work to him of articles she reviewed. He assigns tasks for her to do over the next couple of weeks.

A meeting is arranged to work on the plan of study for a student.

The dean walks down the hall to the associate dean's office to meet about the class that she team teaches with the associate dean. They have two teaching assistants who assist with the course. They walk through each student's assignments, the problematic ones first. They discuss how to help students fulfill their course requirements. They discuss the class format for Thursday. Also, they discuss the possibility of disseminating job information.

### Critical Analysis

#### Rationale for New Roles

Mintzberg's theory has stood the test of time, and like all good theories it is still taught today. For this very reason, it was deemed more appropriate to revamp and expand Mintzberg's theory as opposed to replace it. Just about every class or book that addresses managerial or executive skills mentions Mintzberg's theory. Therefore, the findings of this study are steps to advance the science of executive behavioral theory that Mintzberg began.

The first area of expansion to Mintzberg's theory is the politician role. This addition represents the political nature inherent in all work environments today. When Mintzberg originally conducted his study, it was not fashionable to focus on the unseen forces of executive actions. However, in today's highly critical environment all areas and aspects of executive behavior are scrutinized. A tremendous amount of attention is placed on executive motives. This role surfaced from the public administration sector literature. Obviously, politics is of particular concern there. Through the lens of public administration the need to incorporate this role became apparent.

The second area that received attention was the renaming of two roles under the informational category. The nature of the roles and how they are played out remain the same. However, the names of the roles can be misleading. The two roles in question are: monitor and disseminator. Monitor is continually seeking information that enables one to understand what is taking place in the organization and its environment. A term that seems to be less confusing and more descriptive of this role is information consumer. The term information consumer should not be confusing to general readers. Disseminator refers to sending external information into

the organization and internal information to one college personnel to another. For this role it was changed to information disseminator to provide symmetry with the first role in this category.

The third area of modification was the resource allocator role. Resources are defined broadly as money, time, material, equipment, manpower, and reputation. With such a broad definition of resources, the role actually depicted managerial aspects. The resource allocator role was very broad and is not concise in communicating the nature of the role. Surprisingly missing from Mintzberg's theory was a role that encompassed managerial actions. Therefore, the resource allocator role was renamed manager. Changing the name to manager enabled the role to reflect all the activities of the original resource allocator role, but also incorporate activities related to managerial duties.

A fourth area of expansion is the policy maker role. To establish continuity and consistency, policies are developed in organizations. Considering how litigious society is today, policies and practices must be in place and systematic. An assumption is that when Mintzberg originally delineated his roles this was not an significant issue. The policy maker role is one that emerges from the public administration sector literature as well.

Lastly, the whole category of competency-based roles was added. No place was available to list the activities of the dean when he or she relied on their competency as a professional. The deans relied on their competency a great deal to make decisions. Mintzberg thought competency was important as well. In his dissertation in 1968 he had a role called expert in his original theory. For some reason when he published his book in 1973 he dropped the role. The final two roles scholar and teacher surfaced specifically because of the environmental context the executives were in: the academy.

### Characteristics of the Roles

The roles were derived from a set of observable activities. Therefore, the roles should be apparent in the everyday activities of the dean. All of the activities of the four deans are

incorporated in the set of roles. The roles presently used in the literature and job advertisements are normative in the sense that sitting deans will communicate what they normally do. The roles of this study are descriptive; they describe exactly what the dean actually does. There is a big gap between what we think we do and what we actually do. For example, ask yourself what you normally do on Saturdays. Then ask an individual who is with you on Saturdays what you do. Compare the two answers, and there in lies the gap between normative and descriptive data. Lastly, the roles are described individually but they are not mutually exclusive. There is a lot of overlap within the roles. Some activities can be coded under more than one role. Moreover, there is an interconnectedness between several of the roles. One role is performed to perform the next. The 15 individual roles form an integrated whole.

#### Application and Implications of the Roles

The 15 roles are believed to capture the nature of decanal work. Leadership styles may differ in how the roles are played, but will not affect the basic nature of decanal work. Also, the amount of time and emphasis placed on each role may be affected by personal preferences. Furthermore, an individual's personality may affect how a role is approached, but not whether it is performed. Moreover, it is believed that the roles are representative of executive behavior in general. The only area of question is the new category of competency-based roles, but the fact that Mintzberg delineated the expert role in his original study suggests that the expert role is important to executives in general. The remaining two roles link to executives in general as well. First, executives in both the business and public sectors author books as well. Furthermore, they are sought after to write columns and articles in journals and magazines. Second, these same executives conduct seminars and programs, which are similar to a classroom setting. Moreover, top executives interact with interns and proteges within a structured format, which looks very much like the teacher-student dyad.

There is a logical argument as well as empirical evidence to support the notion that these 15 roles are common to the work of all academic deans and executives in general. A figure

borrowed from Mintzberg shows how the executives stand between his or her organizational unit and its environment (see Figure 4). The dean of education guides his or her college in the same manner as does a dean of nursing and a president of an airline company. The only difference is contextual (i.e., business, public, and university administration). Each executive must lead an organization within a complex environment. In doing so, it is argued that executives perform a set of roles, and the roles are derived from certain common work characteristics (activities). Various studies referenced in Chapter II on deans and executive behavior support this argument; one or more of the roles presented in this chapter are mentioned. In Chapter II these roles are discussed in one form or another in reference to deans of different colleges, and of executives of different sectors. Lastly, the foundation for this study is Mintzberg's theory, which has been utilized in all contextual settings to date.

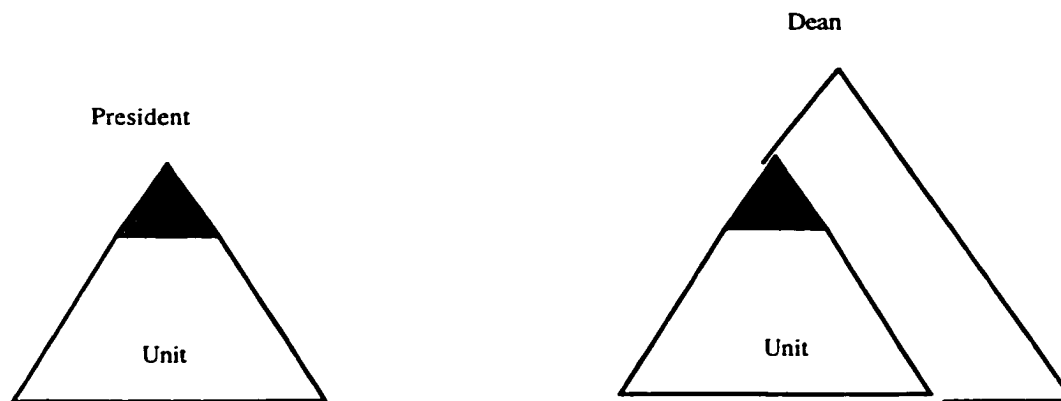


Figure 4. The Executive Between Unit and Environment

## CHAPTER V

### CATEGORIZING DECANAL WORK

To support the executive behavioral theory presented in Chapter IV, it is necessary to describe rigorously the activities of academic deans. Four college of education deans were observed, each for one week periods, and their activities are described and categorized in this Chapter. The primary focus of this chapter is to recount the activities the deans were observed performing, and secondarily to offer suggestions as to why these activities occurred. To achieve this lofty task, much data must be presented. During the four weeks, 13 types of activities were categorized and a total of 959 records were collected. Therefore, tables and pie charts coupled with textual explanations will be used to express the meaning of the data. Furthermore, to provide a theoretical grounding to guide the analysis of the following data, the sociology of time was employed.

The sociology of time (sometimes referred to as sociology of work time) is a “framework integrating individuals’ independent work patterns and the larger social and temporal contexts” (Perlow, 1999, p. 57). Hassard (1990) proposed four main analytical dimensions to be used to classify social time: (1) the relationship between individuals and history; (2) the structure of activities; (3) values, norms, and meanings of social time; and (4) time scale. The analytical dimension used in this Chapter is number two: the structure of activities.

The chosen analytical dimension posits that social time is structured by referencing significant activities; therefore, time is a relationship between activities. McGrath and Kelly (1986) found that the relationship between time and activities focuses around several

parameters: the temporal flexibility of a particular activity, its elasticity, and the possibility of grouping a set of activities. Subsequently, they coined the term “pivotal activity,” which means that a sequential axis of various social times is determined by the activities. Simply put, activities are acceptable variables for studying the use of time. Hence, the sociology of time is an excellent theoretical framework to help analyze the chronology record data.

### **The Structure of Decanal Work**

The four academic deans were observed utilizing the chronology record previously described in Chapter III. The chronology record was used to note all the activities of each dean during the course of the work day. Therefore, the pattern and nature of the deans’ work day are described through the lens of the activities performed. Information such as length of work day, scheduling of activities, time spent on activities, and the nature of activities performed will be discussed in the results section of this chapter.

All statistics were computed using the software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A data base was created with 959 cases of activities and ten variables that best captured the data collected (i.e., dean, day, activity, location, initiate, duration, nature, people, gender, and tenure; see Table 3). The variables are explained in more detail Table 3. Descriptive statistics (means, percentages, and sums) were used to examine the extent the activities performed by the deans relate to the other activities, and to the work day. Separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used to examine differences in the activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on gender and on length of employment (independent variables).

### **Results**

The four deans spend the majority of their time in meetings (scheduled 23.4% and unscheduled 14.8%; see Figure 5). A large amount of the deans’ time in proportion to the other activities was spent in transition to the next activity (15.2%). The deans often were stationary, frequently performing general tasks such as desk work (9.4%), computer work (7.4%), and



Table 3. Variable Definitions

Dean:	A categorical variable identifier of the deans, 1=dean A, 2=dean B, 3=dean C, and 4=dean D.
Day:	A categorical variable to identify the day of the week, 1=Monday, 2=Tuesday, 3=Wednesday, 4=Thursday, and 5=Friday.
Activity:	A string variable identifying which activity is being performed by the deans (i.e., unscheduled and scheduled meeting, break, desk work, computer work, phone contact, tour, transition, paper work, personal appointment, and other activity).
Location:	A categorical variable reflecting the location for which the activity is performed (i.e., dean's office, on campus, off campus, teleconference, office, conference, building, site, and airport).
Initiate:	A categorical variable to determine who initiated the phone contact, where 1=placed call and 2= received call.
Duration:	A continuous variable identifying the number of minutes spent on an activity.
Nature:	A categorical variable to reflect the nature of the activity performed by the deans (i.e., interpersonal, informational, decisional, competency-based, drink, lunch, rest room, w.w.w., word processing, miscellaneous, walked, vehicle, closed door, air plane). The nature variable categories provide a link between the activity performed and the executive behavioral theory categories identified in Chapter IV.
People:	A continuous variable identifying the number of people involved in the meeting with the dean.
Gender:	0= male, 1= female.
Tenure:	0= more than 2 years of employment, 1= less than 2 years of employment.

phone contacts (5.9%). Also, the deans performed many tasks while mobile: tours (5.8%), breaks (5.7%), paper work (.80%), and other activities (8.1%). Lastly, the deans scheduled time within the work day to take care of personal matters (personal appointments, 3.5%). For a comparison of the distribution of the chronology record against Mintzberg's findings, please see Appendix B. A detailed analysis of each activity is provided in the following section.

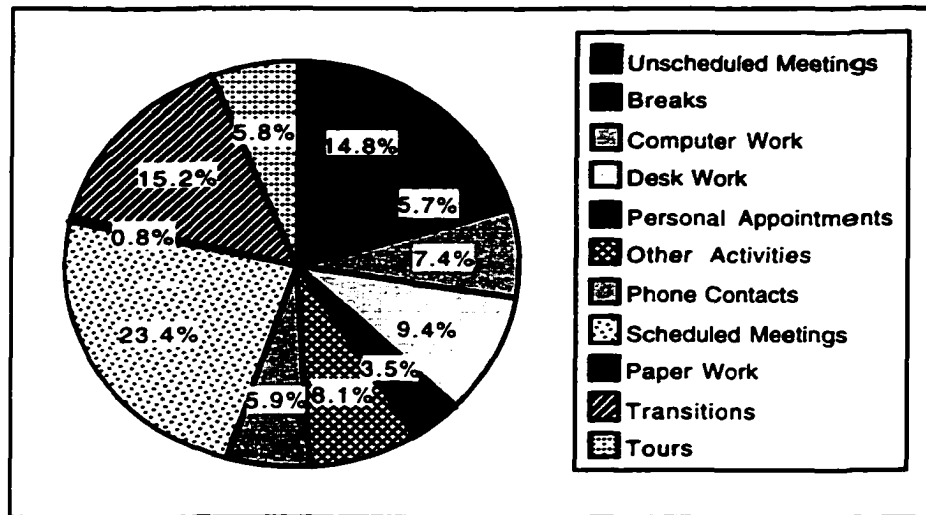


Figure 5. Distribution of the Chronology Record based on Four Weeks of Observation

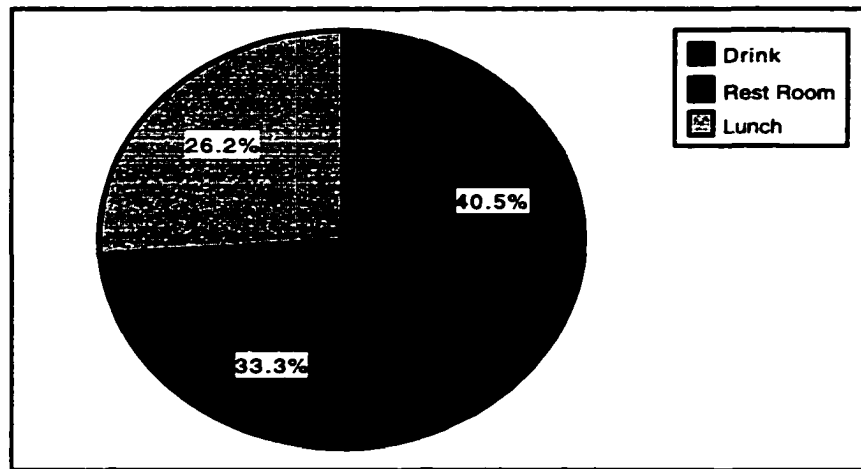
#### Analysis of Chronology Record based on Decanal Activities

##### Break

A clearly definable break in the work day of the dean. During the four weeks of observations, the deans had a total of 42 breaks (see Table 4). The breaks constituted 607 minutes of the deans' work weeks, with an average of 14.45 minutes spent on breaks. Commonly the breaks (19%) constituted about one minute or less of the deans' time. An analysis of the nature of these breaks provide additional descriptions of time spent on breaks. The deans spent 40.5% of their break time obtaining a beverage (i.e., coffee, soft drink, and water), 33.3% in the rest room, and 26.2% at lunch (Figure 6). The only time the four deans

**Table 4. Frequency Distribution of Breaks by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Breaks	42
Time on Breaks	607 minutes
Average Duration	14.45 minutes
Mode	1 minute

**Figure 6. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Breaks**

took that could be clearly defined as a break was to provide nourishment and relief for their bodies.

### Computer Work

Time spent working on the computer. The deans performed work on their computers 119 times during the course of the four weeks, which constituted 792 minutes of the work weeks (Table 5). On average the deans spent 6.65 minutes performing work on their computers. However, 23.5% of the computer work occurred within one minute. The nature of computer work indicates that 79.8% of the deans' time was spent on e-mail, 16.8% performing word processing, and 3.4% on the World Wide Web (Figure 7). The large use of e-mail reflects the increased role of that medium in communicating with constituents. Furthermore, some deans have adopted a "management by e-mail" style, which will be discussed further in the section on the characteristics of decanal work. The deans tended to use office support staff

Table 5. Frequency Distribution of Computer Work by Duration in Minutes

Number of Computer Work Activities	119
Time on Computer Work	792 minutes
Average Duration	6.65 minutes
Mode	1 minute

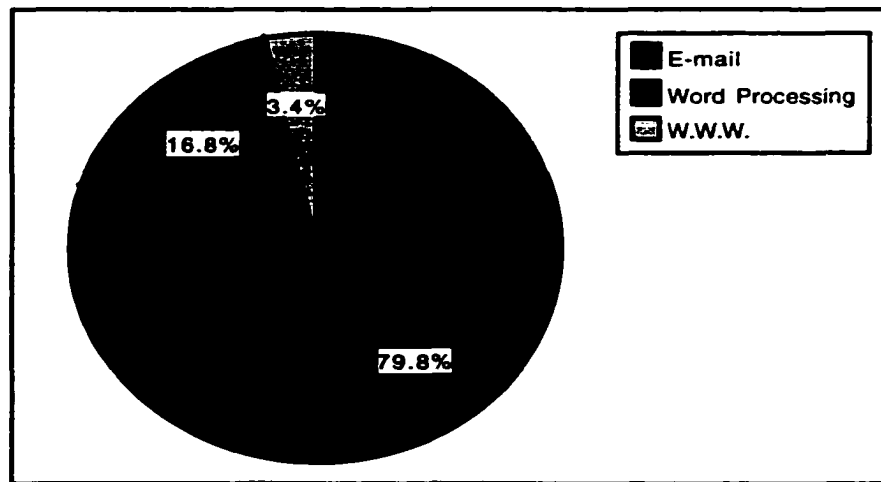


Figure 7. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Computer Work

to help with word processing needs, which reflects the low usage of the computer for word processing. Finally, the deans used the World Wide Web occasionally to obtain immediate information for use with making decisions.

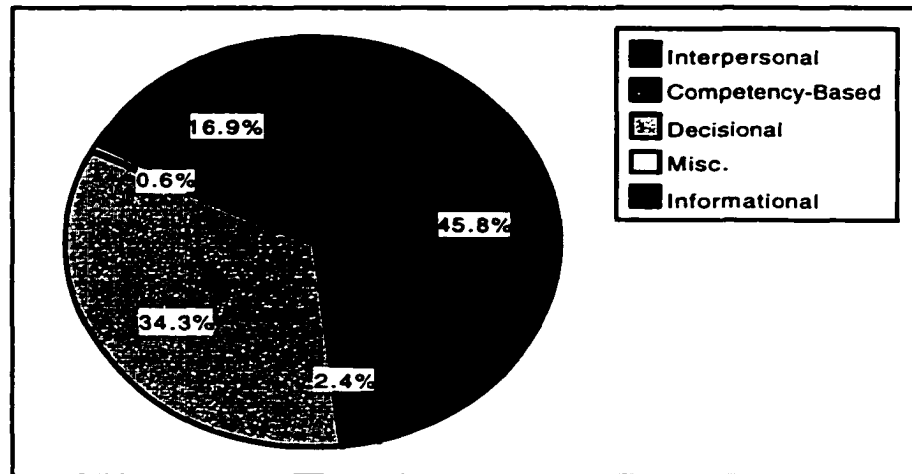
#### Desk Work

The processing of paper work by the dean at his or her desk. There were 166 cases of desk work reported for the deans (Table 6). A total of 994 minutes were spent performing desk work, with an average duration of 5.98 minutes per case, which is significantly shorter than an average of 15 minutes found by Mintzberg. Twenty-five percent of the time spent on desk work lasted one minute, and 16.9% of the time spent on desk work lasted two minutes. The nature of desk work was linked to the four categories of the executive behavioral theory presented in Chapter IV (interpersonal, information, decisional, and competency-based). Interpersonal roles constituted 45.8% of the time (Figure 8), with activities such as the

authorization of projects and the signing of official documents. Decisional roles were 34.3% of the time spent on desk work (i.e., personal organization, budgeting, and evaluation). Informational roles which were 16.9% of desk work time dealt with in-coming and out-going mail and memos. Competency-based roles which were 2.4% of desk work time consisted of preparation time for conference presentations and research (i.e., books, manuscripts, and reports). Lastly, 0.6% was miscellaneous which was either non-related business or desk work that could not be identified.

**Table 6. Frequency Distribution of Desk Work by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Desk Work Activities	166
Time on Desk Work	994 minutes
Average Duration	5.98 minutes
Mode	1 minute



**Figure 8. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Desk Work**

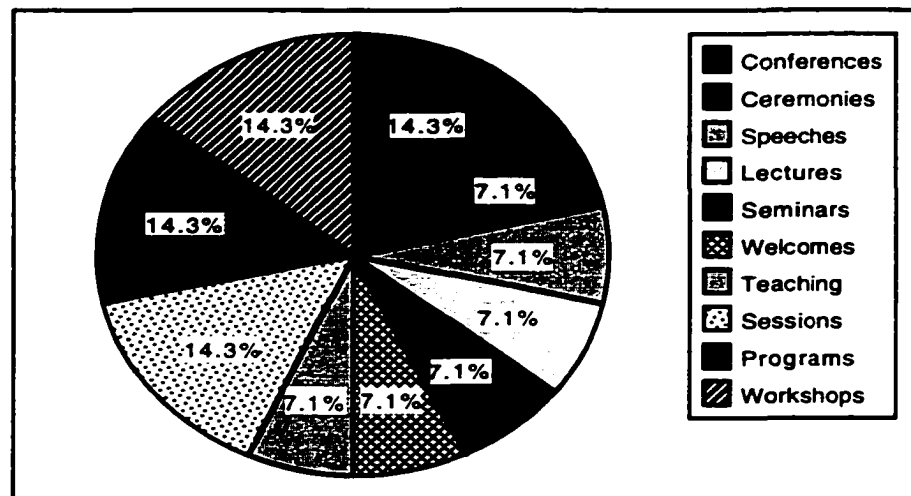
### Other Activities

A re-coded variable to encapsulate a number of isolated related events. Other activities occurred 14 times during the course of the observations (Table 7). Time spent on the activities totaled 861 minutes, with an average duration of 61.5 minutes per activity. The nature of other

activities was used to identify the activity being performed: attendance at conferences, programs, sessions, and workshops all registered as 14.3% (Figure 9), while the performance of ceremonies, speeches, lectures, seminars, welcomes, and teaching registered as 7.1%. Ultimately, the other activities show how the deans are involved professionally by disseminating and consuming information.

**Table 7. Frequency Distribution of Other Activities by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Other Activities	14
Time on Other Activities	861 minutes
Average Duration	61.5 minutes
Mode	Multiple (all activities had a different value)



**Figure 9. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Type of Other Activities**

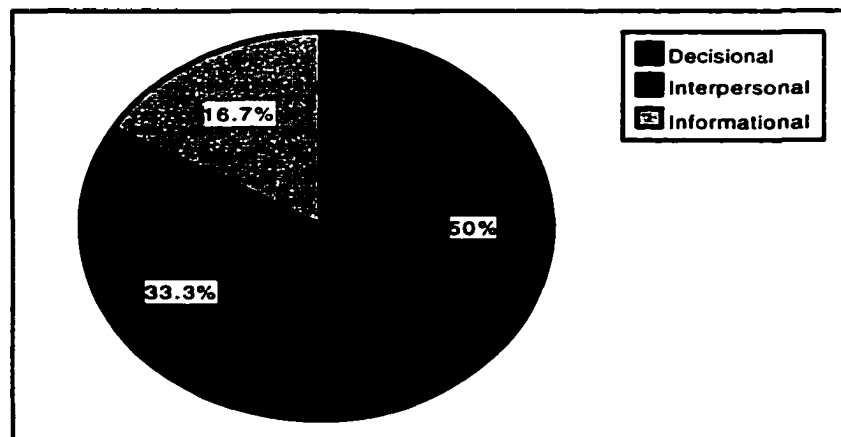
### Paper Work

The processing of paper work by the dean at any place other than his or her desk. There were 18 cases of paper work, which constituted 83 minutes of the four weeks of observation (Table 8). The average duration of paper work was 4.61 minutes, with a mode of one minute (which occurred 50% of the time). The nature of paper work was linked to the four categories

of the executive behavioral theory presented in Chapter IV (interpersonal, informational, decisional, and competency-based). Decisional roles constituted 50% of the nature of paper work (i.e., personal organization, budgeting, and evaluation) (Figure 10). Interpersonal roles were 33.3%, with activities such as the authorization of projects and the signing of official documents. Informational roles were 16.7%, which included in-coming and out-going mail and memos.

**Table 8. Frequency Distribution of Paper Work by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Paper Work Activities	18
Time on Paper Work	83 minutes
Average Duration	4.61 minutes
Mode	1 minute



**Figure 10. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Paper Work**

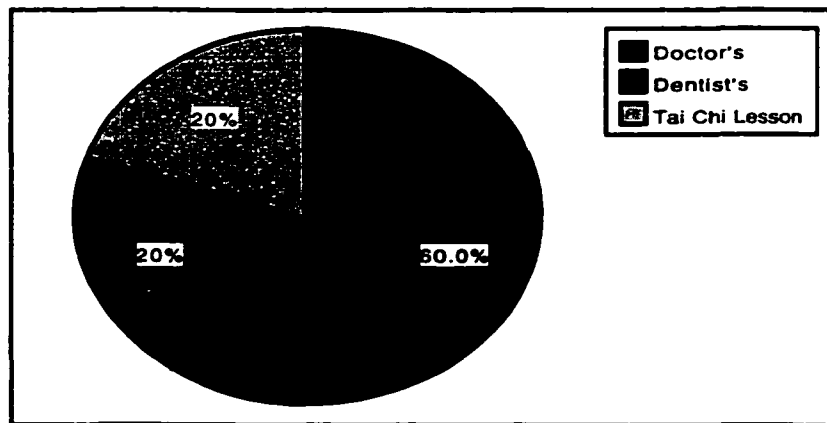
### Personal Appointments

Appointments not related to official business. Personal appointments occurred five times during the course of the observations (Table 9). This activity consumed 370 minutes, with an average duration of 74 minutes. An analysis of the nature variable will show that

doctor's appointments constituted 60% of the time, and dentist's appointments and Tai Chi lessons were each 20% (Figure 11). The activity connotes that deans will schedule appointments to handle personal issues within the work day. Moreover, it suggests that there may not be a clear line between the dean's personal and professional lives.

**Table 9. Frequency Distribution of Personal Appointments by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Personal Appointments	5
Time in Personal Appointments	370 minutes
Average Duration	74 minutes
Mode	Multiple (all activities had a different value)



**Figure 11. Percentage of Total Time of Activity by Nature of Personal Appointments**

### Phone Contact

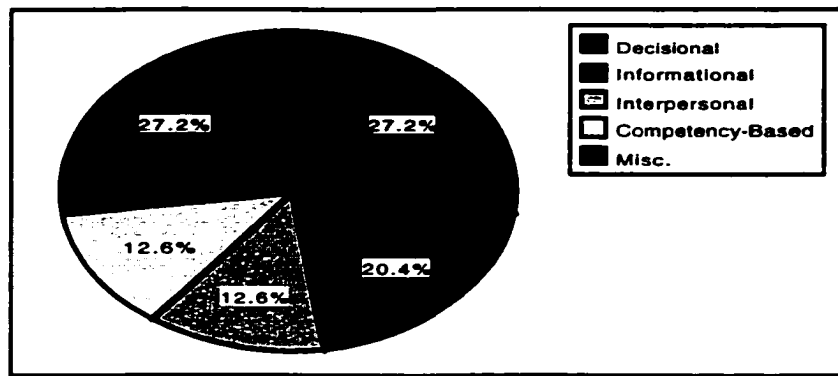
Phone calls placed or received by the dean. There were 104 phone contacts during the course of the observations, which totaled 629 minutes (Table 10). The average duration for the activity phone contact was 6.04 minutes (which is consistent with the 6 minute average for Mintzberg's study), with a mode of one minute (which occurred 28.8% of the time). The nature of phone contacts was linked to the four categories of the executive behavioral theory presented in Chapter IV (interpersonal, informational, decisional, and competency-based). Decisional and miscellaneous both occurred 27.2% of the time, followed by informational at



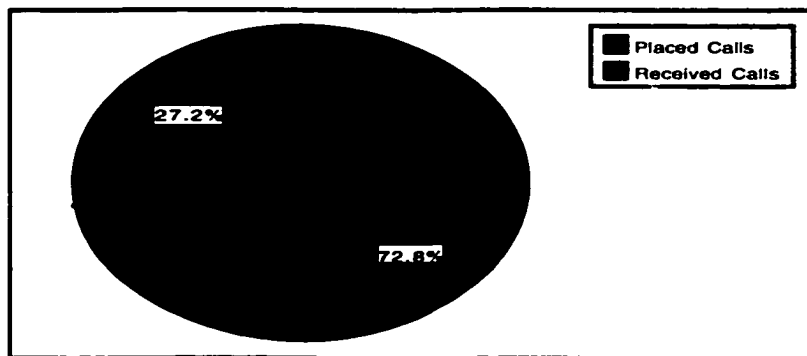
20.4%, and interpersonal and competency-based both equalling 12.6% each (Figure 12). The large percentage of time used for miscellaneous calls suggests that the deans spent a large portion of their time on the phone discussing non-business-related issues. In reference to how the phone contacts were initiated, 72.8% of the calls were placed by the dean, and 27.2% of the calls were initiated by the caller to the dean (Figure 13). Therefore, the dean is more likely to initiate a phone call than to receive one.

**Table 10. Frequency Distribution of Phone Contacts by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Phone Contacts	104
Time on Phone Contacts	629 minutes
Average Duration	6.04 minutes
Mode	1 minute



**Figure 12. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Phone Contacts**



**Figure 13. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Initiation of Phone Contacts**

### Scheduled Meeting

A meeting that has been set up in advance and appears on the dean's schedule. Fifty scheduled meetings occurred during the four weeks of observations (Table 11). These meetings totaled 2491 minutes, with an average of 49.82 minutes (Mintzberg calculated 68 minutes). The most frequent duration for a meeting was 27 minutes. The nature of scheduled meetings spanned interpersonal (46%), competency-based (30%), decisional (18%), and informational (6%) (Figure 15). An analysis of the location of the scheduled meetings shows that 52% occurred on campus, 24% in the dean's office, 22% off campus, and 2% via teleconference (Figure 14). This distribution implies that scheduled meetings are arranged by the person or persons the dean are to meet. Therefore, the meetings are scheduled on campus in another location, or off campus. Furthermore, the number of people involved in the meetings also affected where the meeting was held. The overwhelming majority of the scheduled meetings occurred outside of the deans' offices. The deans met with a total of 272 people, with a mean of 5.66 people per meeting, and a mode of one person 34% of the time (Figure 16).

Table 11. Frequency Distribution of Scheduled Meetings by Duration in Minutes

Number of Scheduled Meetings	50
Time in Scheduled Meetings	2491 minutes
Average Duration	49.82 minutes
Mode	27 minutes

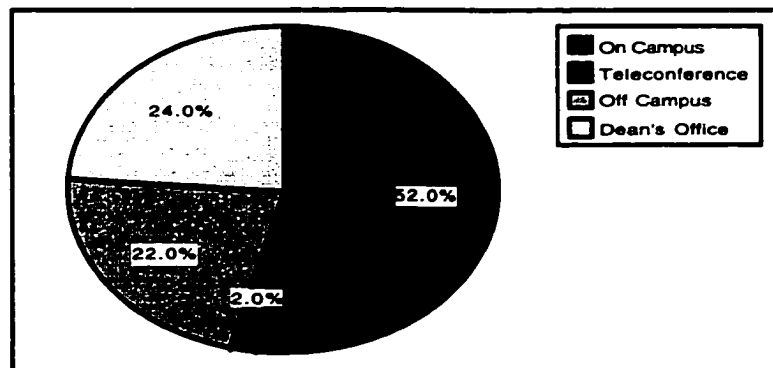


Figure 14. Percentage of Total Time on Activity on Activity by Location of Scheduled Meetings

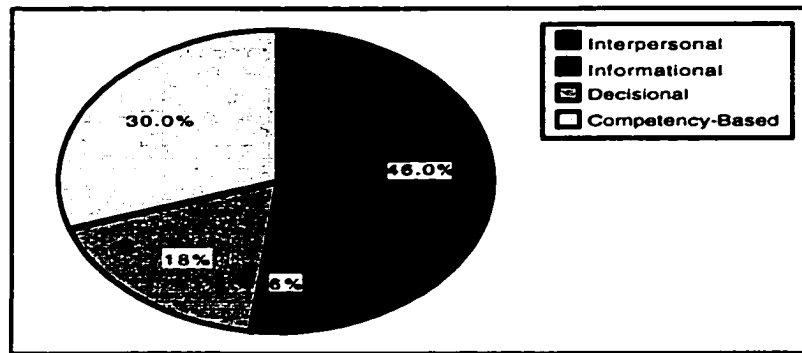
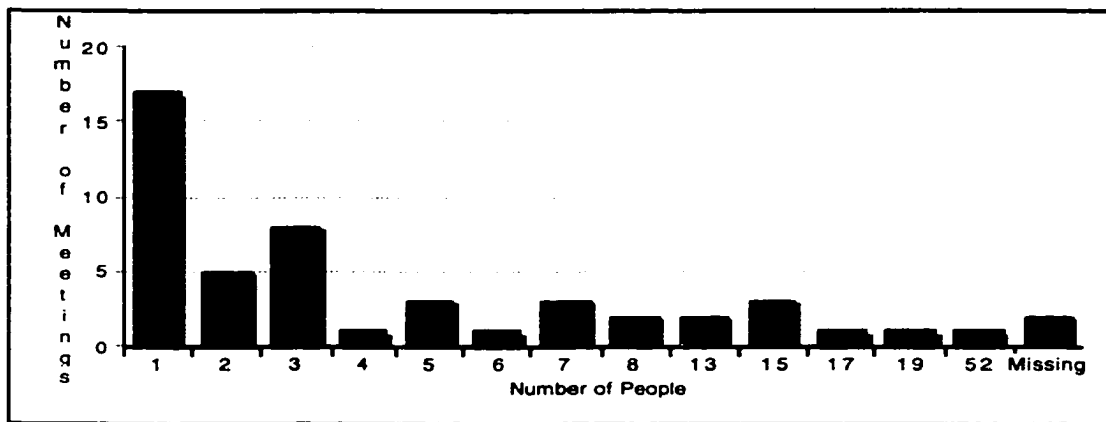


Figure 15. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Scheduled Meetings



(Sum = 272 people; Mean = 5.66 people; Mode = 1 person)

Figure 16. Frequency of Scheduled Meetings by Number of People

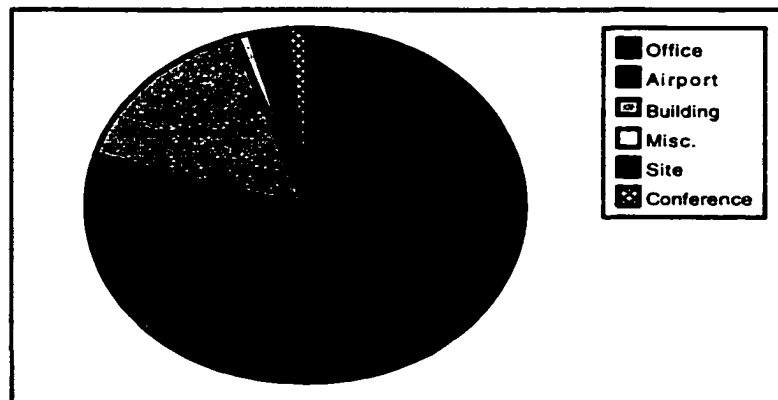
### Tour

Cases when the dean left his or her office for brief periods of time, to greet someone in the hall, to see something of interest, or just to tour the college. Eighty-one tours were taken by the four deans during the observational time (Table 12). The tours totaled 616 minutes during the four weeks of observations. Each tour on average was 7.60 minutes in length (Mintzberg calculated 11 minutes), with a mode of one minute (which constituted 25.9% of all tours). The types of tours taken were: office tours (78.4%), building tours (15.2%), site tours (2.5%), conference tours (1.3%), and airport tours (1.3%), with occasional missing data (1.3%)

(Figure 17). Over three-fourths of the tours occurred in the deans' general office suites, and secondarily within the building of the colleges. This shows that the deans are relatively mobile, moving about frequently within the college. Informational roles were 77.1% of the tours (i.e., the deans disseminated and consumed information) (Figure 18). Miscellaneous tours constituted 8.9% (which were either non-business-related or hard to identify as to their nature). Decisional roles were 6.3% of tours (i.e., scheduling, coordinating, supervising, and evaluation). Interpersonal roles were 5.1%, which dealt with leader and politician issues. Lastly, 2.6% were missing data.

**Table 12. Frequency Distribution of Tours by Duration in Minutes**

Number of Tours	81
Time on Tours	616 minutes
Average Duration	7.60 minutes
Mode	1 minute



**Figure 17. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Type of Tours**

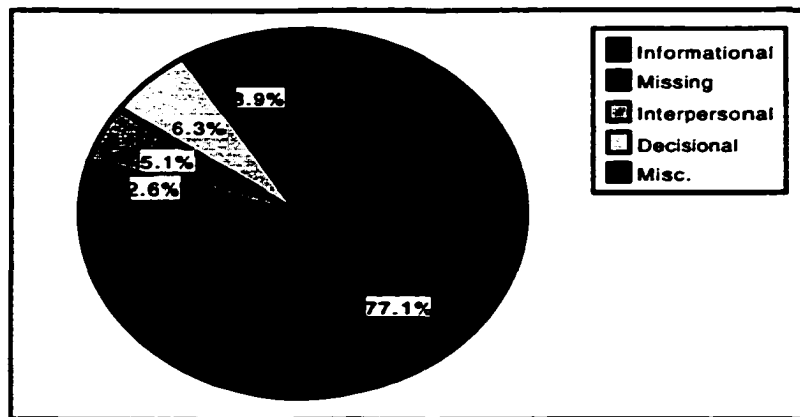


Figure 18. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Tours

### Transition

Passage from one place to another. During the four weeks of observations, the deans transitioned from one place to another 83 times (Table 13). The transitions consumed 1610 minutes of the deans' time, with a mean of 19.39 minutes. The mode for transition registered as 10 minutes. The methods of transportation were: vehicle (61.5%), walked (37.3%), and airplane (1.2%), respectively (Figure 19). The deans tended to travel longer distances, which required the use of a vehicle. Furthermore, the fast-paced schedule required the deans to make it to the next activity in a timely fashion.

Table 13. Frequency Distribution of Transitions by Duration in Minutes

Number of Transitions	83
Time in Transition	1610 minutes
Average Duration	19.39 minutes
Mode	10 minute

### Unscheduled Meeting

A meeting that has not been formally or informally scheduled. Two hundred and forty-six unscheduled meetings occurred during the four weeks of observations (Table 14). These meetings totaled 1572 minutes, with an average duration of 6.39 minutes, which is almost half

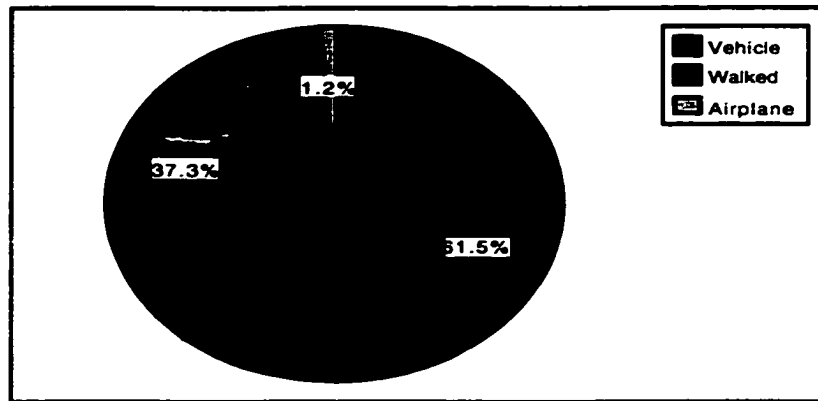


Figure 19. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Methods of Transition

of the 12 minutes found in Mintzberg's study. The most frequent duration for a meeting was one minute. An analysis of the location of the unscheduled meetings shows that 63.4% occurred in the deans' offices, 31.7% on campus, 4.5% off campus, and 0.4% via teleconference (Figure 20). This distribution connotes that for unscheduled meetings with the deans, the participants tended to drop by the deans' offices. The nature of unscheduled meetings spanned decisional (41.1%), interpersonal (25.6%), informational (16.7%), miscellaneous (8.1%), competency-based (6.5%), and closed door (2%) (Figure 21). The deans met with a total of 276 people, with a mean of 1.2 people, and a mode of one person (30.1%) of all such meetings (Figure 22).

The following discussion is derived from the analysis of activities by day (Figure 15). Mondays were the heaviest day for scheduled and unscheduled meetings for the four deans observed. A possible reason for this occurrence is the general logic of planning meetings:

Table 14. Frequency Distribution of Unscheduled Meetings by Duration in Minutes	
Number of Unscheduled Meetings	246
Time in Unscheduled Meetings	1572 minutes
Average Duration	6.39 minutes
Mode	1 minute

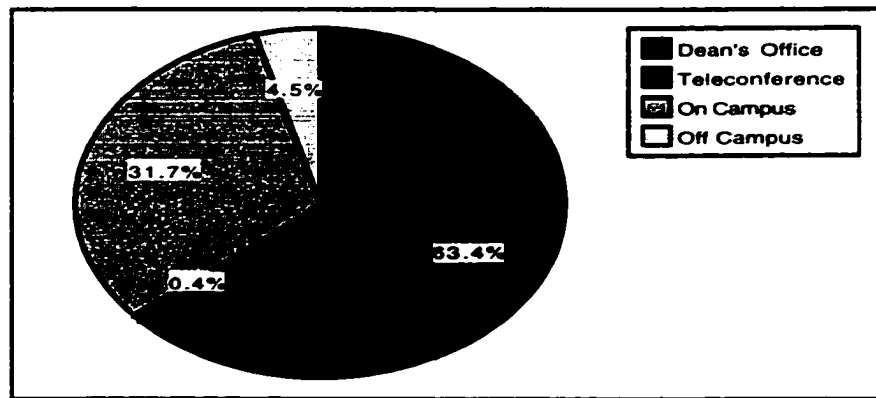


Figure 20. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Location of Unscheduled Meetings

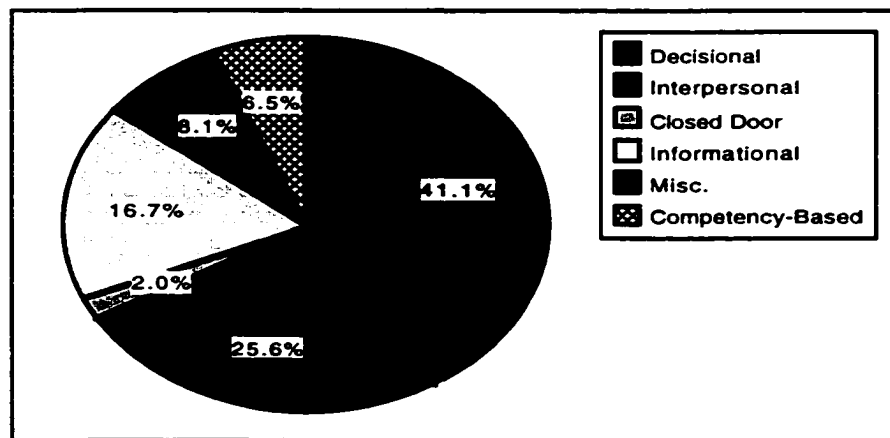
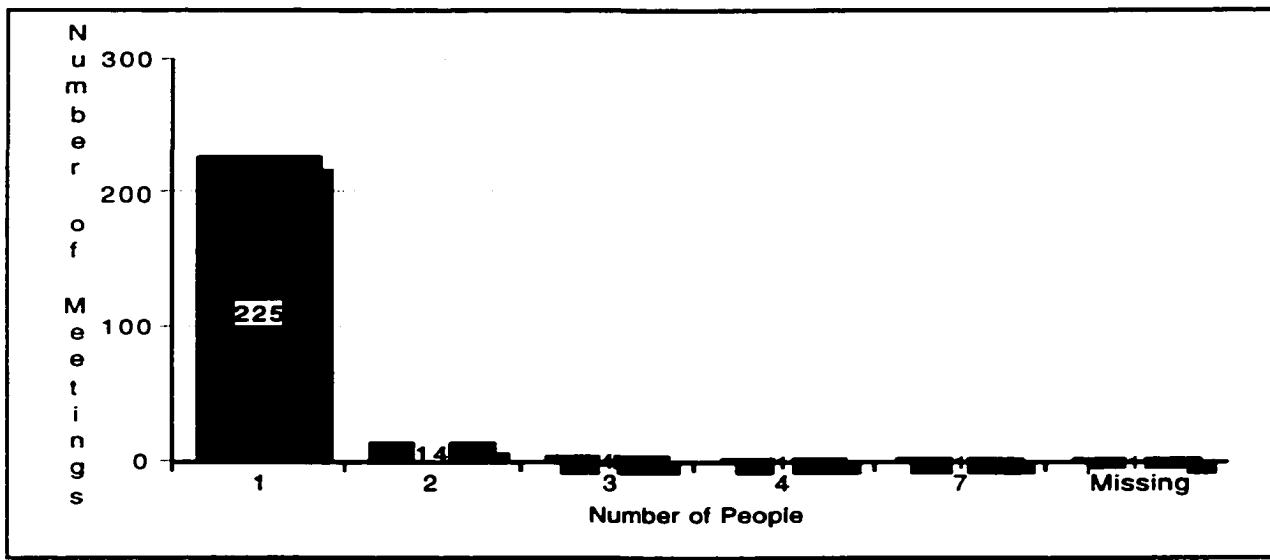


Figure 21. Percentage of Total Time on Activity by Nature of Unscheduled Meetings



Note. 0= Missing Data

(Sum = 276 people; Mean = 1.2; Mode = 1 person)

Figure 22. Frequency of Unscheduled Meetings by Number of People

schedule when you know the dean will be around. Therefore, the beginning of the week tends to be the choice of general wisdom. Desk work for the deans was very heavy on Mondays as well. Therefore, between meetings the deans were frantically working at their desks. As for paper work, it was heavy for deans on Mondays and Fridays. This finding, combined with the two previously discussed, suggests that Mondays are “catch-up days” and Fridays are “get caught-up days.” “Catch-up days” are days when the dean comes in with work backed up, attempting to get a handle on the work that needs to be done. “Get caught-up days” are days when the dean is attempting to finish a set amount of work before calling it quits, so that when he or she comes back to work the dean is “caught up.”

Tuesdays were days when more computer work was performed. Seeing how heavy the work load is on Monday, it is logical to think that Tuesday would be the day to get to less pressing issues. Personal appointments seemed to be reserved for Tuesdays and Thursdays, in lieu of the “catch-up” and “get caught-up” phenomenon of Mondays and Fridays. To support



this assertion, no personal appointments were scheduled on Mondays or Fridays. Therefore, it should not be a surprise that phone contacts were performed more on Thursdays and Fridays. Considering the busy schedule up until this point this seems to be the best time for the dean to return and place calls that were not urgent. Other activities were participated in more heavily on Thursdays and Fridays. This reflects the nature of most conferences being scheduled for the end of the week or the weekend. Consistent with the other activities is the high level of transition on Fridays. Most of the conferences and related activities required travel time. Lastly, tours were taken more on Fridays, which may suggest that deans felt freer to tour the office or college when in town on this day.

**Table 15. Analysis of the Distribution of Activities by Day**

Activity	M	T	W	Th	F
Break	19.0%	19.0%	31.0%*	14.3%	16.7%
Computer Work	23.5%	25.2%*	17.6%	18.5%	15.1%
Desk Work	22.3%*	18.1%	21.3%	18.1%	20.5%
Other Activities	-----	21.4%	7.1%	35.7%*	35.7%*
Paper Work	38.9%*	11.1%	-----	11.1%	38.9%*
Personal Appoint.	-----	40.0%*	20.0%	40.0%*	-----
Phone Contact	20.2%	20.2%	15.4%	22.1%*	22.1%*
Scheduled Meeting	24.0%*	18.0%	20.0%	16.0%	22.0%
Tours	22.2%	18.5%	21.0%	14.8%	23.5%*
Transition	13.3%	24.1%	12.0%	16.9%	33.7%*
Unscheduled Meeting	28.5%*	17.5%	20.7%	-----	17.1%

\* = The day or days of the week with the highest percentage of activity usage.

### Arrival

The dean's arrival to the office or to the site of official business. On average the deans arrived for official business at 8:11 a.m., out of 20 working days. The arrival times ranged from 7:30 a.m. to 9:43 a.m.

### End of Day

The end of official office business for the dean. During the course of the four weeks, with 20 work days, the deans ended their days at the office at 5:15 p.m. on average. The end of day time ranged from 3:16 p.m. to 6:54 p.m. Therefore, on average the deans' schedules

were consistent with the normal working day of 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.

The separate analysis of variances (ANOVA) tests used to examine the differences in the activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on gender (independent variable) reflects that there were no significance differences in the activities performed by the deans based on gender (see Table 16). It must be noted that there is not a statistic for personal appointments because only the female deans in this study had personal appointments; however, this occurrence is believed to be an anomaly due to the weeks of observation. Also, the analysis of variance test used to examine differences in activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on length of employment (independent variable) reflects that there were no significant differences in the activities performed by the deans based on length of employment (see Table 17). These findings suggest that regardless of gender and length of employment the dean's job has the same requirements for all incumbents. Moreover, the nature of the dean's position drives its incumbents to participate in similar activities.

**Table 16. One Way Analyses of Variance for the Effect of Gender on Duration, by Activity**

Activity	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Breaks	1	512.36	512.36	1.07	.3071
Computer Work	1	149.97	149.97	3.52	.0628
Desk Work	1	280.415	280.41	3.81	.0524
Other Activities	1	1260.11	1260.11	.7534	.4024
Paper Work	1	3.36	3.36	.0657	.8010
Phone Contact	1	5.04	5.04	.0642	.8005
Personal Appointment	-	-----	-----	-----	-----
Scheduled Meeting	1	568.56	568.56	.5281	.4709
Tours	1	145.07	145.07	.7410	.3919
Transition	1	629.60	629.60	.8748	.3524
Unscheduled Meeting	1	88.73	88.73	.6467	.4221

Table 17. One Way Analyses of Variance for the Effect of Tenure (Length of Employment) on Duration, by Activity

Activity	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Break	1	146.79	146.79	.3008	.5864
Computer Work	1	123.29	123.29	2.88	.0921
Desk Work	1	84.01	84.01	1.12	.2903
Other Activities	1	428.75	428.75	.2462	.6288
Paper Work	1	72.00	72.00	1.53	.2332
Personal Appointment	1	3.33	3.33	.0011	.9757
Phone Contact	1	75.42	75.42	.9679	.3275
Scheduled Meeting	1	32.34	32.34	.0297	.8638
Tours	1	23.28	23.28	.1180	.7322
Transition	1	224.99	224.99	.3105	.5789
Unscheduled Meeting	1	255.19	155.19	1.86	.1728

### Extended Hours Chronology Record

The data contained in the Extended Hours Chronology Record was not observed by the researcher, but rather the deans themselves recorded the data (self-reported). An average of 122.35 minutes per day was spent on extended hours work by the deans. The times ranged from 0 minutes to 135 minutes; collectively they performed extended hours work for 2447 minutes. During the course of the observations, in general the deans engaged in similar activities extended hours as they did during the normal work day. There was a tendency to take home lengthy and interesting paper work (i.e., publications, reports, letters, and memos). Large enough blocks of time were not available for the deans to dedicate time to these activities. Moreover, activities that required deep and conceptual thinking were deferred to the afternoon; for example, when the deans needed to prepare for a presentation or to write journal articles. The purpose of including the Extended Hours Chronology Record was to peer into the evening activities and work habits of the deans.

### Characteristics of the Deanship

The following section identifies characteristics of the deanship compared to characteristics of chief executive officers addressed by Mintzberg (1973) and Helgesen (1990).

These two books set out to answer the question of what executives do, with two different populations. As noted previously, Mintzberg observed five male chief executive officers in the business sector, while Helgesen observed four female chief executive officers in business. This comparison will provide additional depth and insight to this study since both populations are observed in this study. Eight characteristics are compared across the three studies. Table 18 contains a description and discussion for each of the characteristics.

### Pace

Mintzberg found that the executives worked at an unrelenting pace with no breaks in activity during the day. This left the executives with the feeling that their work was never done. While Helgesen's women executives worked at a steady pace, some breaks were scheduled throughout the day. The pace for these women was less frantic because breaks were scheduled during the day to slow down the pace. The deans in this study fell somewhere in the middle. They worked at a brisk pace, but took small breaks throughout the day. These breaks were not scheduled, and generally were used to eat, drink, or for the rest room. However, they still helped to slow down the pace of the day.

### Fragmentation

Mintzberg's executives' days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation. Much of their time was used to address unforeseeable events that fostered a fragmented atmosphere. Any free time in the schedule was intervened by subordinates' needs. Conversely, Helgesen's women did not view unscheduled tasks and encounters as interruptions. The women executives made themselves accessible for the immediate needs of subordinates. The findings of this study shows the deans viewed the unscheduled tasks and encounters as part of their job. Therefore, their philosophy was more in line with Helgesen's executives. This may be due more to the advancement of executive behavior by 1990, instead of gender, since both male and female deans exhibited similar patterns.

Table 18. A Comparison of the Characteristics Found in Three Studies on Executives

	Mintzberg 5 Male CEOs	Helgesen 4 Female CEOs	Jackson 4 College of Education Deans 2 Males and 2 Female
Pace	The executives worked at an unrelenting pace, with no breaks in activity during the day.	The women worked at a steady pace, but with small breaks scheduled in throughout the day.	The deans worked at a brisk pace, but took small unscheduled breaks throughout the day.
Fragmentation	Their days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation.	They did not view unscheduled tasks and encounters as interruptions.	The deans viewed the unscheduled tasks and encounters as part of their job.
Personal Tasks	They spared little time for activities not directly related to their work.	The women made time for activities not directly related to their work.	The deans made modest efforts to incorporate non-business related activities in their work day.
Preference of Interactions	They exhibited a preference for live action encounters.	The women preferred live action encounters, but scheduled time to attend to mail.	The deans preferred live action encounters, scheduled time to attend to mail, and increasingly used electronic mail.
Networking	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.
Reflection	Immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the company going, they lacked time for reflection.	They focused on the ecology of leadership.	Immersed in the daily activities of the deanship, they lacked time for reflection.
Professional Identity	They identified themselves with their job.	They saw their own identities as complex and multifaceted.	The deans saw their job as an integrated part of their lives.
Information Sharing	They had difficulty sharing information.	The women scheduled in time for sharing information.	The deans' schedules included time to share information in a variety of forums and formats.

### Personal Tasks

The male executives in Mintzberg's study spared little time for activities not directly related to their work. Time with their families suffered severely, and their homes were nothing more than extensions of the work place (branch offices). On the other hand, the women made time for activities not directly related to their work. The female executives were very conscious of their family time and did everything they could do to prevent it from suffering. The deans in this study made modest efforts to incorporate non-business-related activities in their work day. The deans were not as isolated as Mintzberg's executives, but were also not as integrated as Helgesen's executives. The male deans participated in phone contacts that were non-business-related often during the observations. The female deans participated in the phone contacts as well, but would also schedule personal appointments during the working day to address personal needs (i.e., doctor's or dentist's appointments).

### Preference of Interactions

Mintzberg's executives exhibited a preference for live action encounters. Phone calls and face-to-face meetings were the preferred method of communication. In contrast, Helgesen's women preferred live action encounters they scheduled time to attend to mail. The female executives saw mail as just another task and not a burden like Mintzberg's executives. The deans preferred live action encounters, scheduled time to attend to mail, and increasingly used electronic mail as a method of communication. As mentioned in Chapter IV, a new method of management is emerging: management by e-mail. Some of the deans used e-mail to issue important decisions that had previously been reserved for meetings, such as resource allocations and program development.

### Networking

All three studies revealed that the executives maintained a complex network for relationships with people outside their organizations. A great deal of time for each set of executives was spent building coalitions and collaborations with outside constituents.

### Reflection

Mintzberg found that his executives were immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the company going; they lacked time for reflection. His executives were not afforded the opportunity to reflect on their leadership. However, Helgesen's women focused on the ecology of leadership: "...it encompasses a vision of society - they relate decisions to their larger effect upon the role of the family, the American educational system, the environment, even world peace" (Helgesen, 1990, p. 25). The deans were found to be immersed in the daily activities of the deanship; they lacked time for reflection as well. Their reflection was contained in the extended hours activities at home.

### Professional Identity

Mintzberg's executives identified themselves with their jobs. This group of executives tended to feel that their identity was indistinguishable from their positions. However, Helgesen's executives saw their identities as complex and multifaceted. They viewed their jobs as just one element of who they were because other aspects of their lives took up too much time to be consumed by their careers. The deans however were somewhere in the middle. They saw their jobs as an integrated but dominant part of their lives. Since the job was so time-consuming, it bled over into their personal lives (extended hours). Also, their personal lives bled over into their professional lives (personal appointments). For the most part, their spouses were involved in some capacity with the university as well (i.e., faculty or graduate student).

### Information Sharing

Mintzberg found his executives had difficulty sharing information. A tendency to hoard information, to be more of a consumer instead of a disseminator, was their chief weakness. Helgesen's women scheduled in time for sharing information. They structured their day to include as much information sharing as possible. Also, the deans' schedules included time to share information, in a variety of forums and formats. Therefore, the deans were very similar to the executives in Helgesen's study.

### Conclusion

Through the comparisons of the three sets of characteristics of executives, similarities and differences arose. Two reasons for these similarities and differences will be offered. First, Mintzberg's and the present study focus on the position and not the person. Simply put, emphasis was placed on the nature of the position and not the leadership styles of the incumbents. However, Helgesen's study seemed to place more of an emphasis on how the position was played, opposed to what was required of the position. Moreover, her study was guided by a critical theory approach with the intent to find differences in male and female executives; therefore she did. In her own words: "In order to know what women managers do differently, I first had to know what male managers do" (Helgesen, 1990, p. 8). Second, the time span between the three studies will contribute to the differences. Mintzberg's study was published in 1973 and Helgesen's subsequently in 1990. Therefore, advancements were made in executive behavior theory by 1990 that may have enabled the female executives to appear far more sophisticated than the male executives. One must consider these limitations when comparing these two studies. Ultimately, after accounting for the limitations, there does not appear to be a major difference in female and male executive behavior as defined by the position. This finding does not suggest that incumbents do not approach the position with different leadership styles. Rather it only posits that leadership styles affect how the position is approached, but does not affect the nature of the position. The same job requirements exist for deans, whether they are male or female, new or seasoned.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This final Chapter begins with a review of the research presented in the previous Chapters. The presentation of the data will be ordered around the concepts contained in each Chapter. This summary is followed by an integrated conclusion section for the two sets of data. More specifically, section two will draw synthesized conclusions for the study. The third section presents implications for the research for deans, schools of education, academe, and future research. In the first Chapter, questions concerning the nature of decanal work were proposed such as: What does an academic dean do in the administration of the college uniquely specific to the position? Or more specifically to this inquiry, what does a dean in the school or college of education do? How is the dean's time spent? What roles does the dean assume? It was concluded that clear answers to these questions were not available in the literature, because most people had a segmented or distorted idea of the dean's work because they arrived at their assumptions based on limited contacts with the dean.

Based on these preliminary observations, the duties, responsibilities, and roles of the dean appeared to be self-determined from the job advertisement and university regulations. However, these two documents (job advertisements and university regulations) do not specify the daily activities of the dean. Even though there is a generous literature base on the academic deanship, very little speaks directly to detailing the work of the dean. Researchers and practitioners have studied and commented on the personal and professional requirements expected of the dean (Gould, 1964; Marchese, 1987; Mottram, 1983), the historical development of the position (Dibden, 1968; Dupont, 1956; Martin & Samels, 1997; Milner,

1936), interaction of the dean and other constituents of the university (Bowker & Lynch, 1985; Mayhew, 1957; Pincus, 1994; Tucker & Bryan, 1991), and the tasks and functions of the position (Barnes, 1996; Dupont, 1956; Gould, 1964; Milner, 1936; Ptersdorf, 1997).

A study of the structure and content of the dean's work was deemed necessary. The approach chosen for this investigation was to consider the dean as a social position in the college of education and utilize role theory. In studying the executive behavior of academic deans in the college of education, various reference points were considered. They were: (1) individual behavior (acts of the academic dean); (2) organizational behavior (events occurring within the college); (3) environmental events (events occurring with the university); and (4) the interactions of 1,2, and 3 (Shartle, 1958).

Role theory concerns one of the most important features of social life: characteristic behavior patterns or roles. It explains roles by presuming that persons are members of social positions, which have expectations for their behavior imposed by others and themselves (Biddle, 1986). Simply put, persons in identical positions should exhibit similar behavior. A social position is a position designated by a title or term that is familiar to persons in the subject population. The subject population is the population of the organization in which the social position interacts. More specifically, role theory is a science concerned with the study of behaviors that are characteristics of persons within contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviors (Biddle, 1979, p. 4).

To address this problem fully an investigation would have required a research team to investigate the position in the college of education environment over an extended period of time. However, the aim of this study was to investigate the executive behavior of the dean's position within the college of education within a narrow period of time and with a limited number of subjects. Upon the collection of data determining the dean's executive behavior a comparative analysis using role theory between the dean's executive roles and executive roles found by Mintzberg (1973) was provided. The roles were then aggregated to form the

executive behavior of academic deans. In conjunction, the purpose was to present the literature concerning the academic deanship, and glean from the literature and data a more complete picture of the work (everyday life) of the dean. The research questions succinctly stated are: (1) to generate an understanding of the daily administrative processes (activities) of the college of education dean; and (2) to generate a theory based on the delineated roles of the dean as it relates to the executive behavior of the position.

Qualitative and quantitative methodologies were both employed in this research. A field study methodology borrowed from the discipline of anthropology was used to collect structured (quantitative) and unstructured observation (qualitative) data. Characteristically, anthropological fieldwork (ethnography) involves a long stay among subjects to enable the researcher to arrive at a complete understanding of its subjects and their environment (Vidich & Lyman, 1994). Both of these approaches yielded inductive data about the dean's work, thus providing systematic patterns of routine behavior (Coladarci, 1980; Vidich & Lyman, 1994). Field study methods of anthropology were an appropriate methodology, since the incomplete picture and knowledge of the academic dean's work exists. The specific methods emphasized are structured observations, and unstructured observations.

The literature on the academic deanship was reviewed for clarification of the characteristics of everyday life for their work performed in colleges and schools since their inception in the academy. Certain types of deans were not examined; the focus was on deans heading academic units. Consequently, information on the dean of students, graduate college deans, continuing education deans, certain aspects of community college deans, deans of instruction, and library science deans were not included in the review. The actual question of "what does a dean do in his [or her] official capacity?" was posed as early as 1964 by Earl J. McGrath. A few years later Dibden wrote in reference to this subject "empirical reports on how deans actually spend their time lend support to the remark of the late Dean DeVane of Yale that 'often one can only say that a dean is one who performs decanal duties'" (1968, p. vi).

Surprisingly, systematic research on the executive behavior associated with the academic deanship is still lacking from studies in higher education (Dejnoska, 1978; Dill, 1980). Ryan (1980) noted that administrative roles have been studied more comprehensively in other institutional settings (i.e., business and public administration). As a result, the deanship deserves more investigation, however, like in many other arenas more research attention is placed on the executive behavior of presidents (Dill, 1980). Therefore, placing academic deans in the same predicament “like middle-management positions in most institutions, an amorphous, variegated, perhaps ultimately indescribable role” (Dill, 1980, p. 262).

The literature was more concerned with general speculations regarding the functions of the academic deanship than with actual descriptions of their work. The research covered a very broad span, inquires into the selection of deans to the effects of stress on the dean have been investigated for their findings. Therefore, since the literature is sparse, it was organized into theme areas to provide a meaningful review. Lastly, the purpose of Chapter II was to present a purposeful and comprehensive review of the literature, glean any executive administrative behavior for the academic deanship, and highlight executive behavior from the private sector (Mintzberg, 1973).

The literature on the academic deanship makes for fascinating reading. However, it provides little insight into the questions posed in Chapter I. Rarely did researchers attempt to address this question, even when the question was posed, no answers were provided. Instead the literature concentrates on the dean’s style and strategies. Occasionally, the dean’s schedule and some details of a dean’s day were discussed, but nothing substantial emerged to construct a general framework to understand academic executive behavior. To explore answers to the questions posed in Chapter I and to provide descriptions of the dean’s work, an empirical study based on direct observations of the academic dean in four colleges of education at research universities was undertaken. A combination of structured and unstructured observations were deemed necessary to provide adequate data. An attempt was made to record

completely and objectively everything that occurred. The observed behavior was categorized according to a pre-imposed structure developed by Mintzberg (1968, 1973). Using both structured and unstructured observations, the emphasis was to obtain accurate descriptions of the deans' executive behavior.

The structured data were collected in one area: chronology records. The chronology record was designed to provide basic data on the design of the work day and to provide a reference to the field notes. This study was designed to focus on the position rather than the person, on the similarities in decanal work with marginal concerns with the differences. More clearly stated, the points of focus are on observed behavior, not on capacities or traits of the dean. Also, the frequency and type of behavior was of concern, but not the evaluation of it.

The literature on executive behavior has been very helpful in supplying benchmark data for which to base this study on academic deans. After thoroughly reviewing the literature, it stood to reason that it was time to empirically re-test Mintzberg's theory on executive behavior for three reasons. First, when Mintzberg initially published his study in 1968 he had 13 roles; however, when he published his book in 1973 there were only ten roles. In one of his fairly recent publications Mintzberg (1990) remained consistent with his previously published ten roles. Conversely, Mintzberg is referenced often by other authors who have attributed him with delineating 12 executive roles. For example, Starling (1998) in his book Managing the Public Sector, describes 12 roles for which he cited Mintzberg.

Second, it has been 32 years since Mintzberg originally delineated these roles. It was reasonable to think that the nature of executives' work had changed. It is worth noting that Sally Helgesen (1990) replicated Mintzberg's methodology with four female executives, but focused more on the over all executive behavior instead of specific roles. Third, Chapter IV tested Mintzberg's executive roles with present-day executives. Moreover, these executive roles were tested with academic executives to see how what they do is similar or dissimilar than business executives.

To expand the work of executive behavior by Mintzberg (1973) to academic deans, role theory was employed. Role theory is based on several underlying propositions. They are: (1) some behaviors are patterned and are characteristic of persons within contexts (i.e., roles); (2) roles are often associated with sets of persons who share a common identity (i.e., social position); (3) persons are often aware of roles, and to some extent roles are governed by the fact of their awareness (i.e., role expectations); (4) roles persists because of the functions they provide and because they are often imbedded within larger social systems; and (5) persons must be taught roles (i.e., socialized) and may find either joy or sorrow in the performance of them (Biddle, 1979). This study focused on propositions one and two.

The academic dean's position was the focus of this inquiry. The notion of position is one of the most widely used concepts in role theory (Biddle & Thomas, 1966), and most writers in the field have followed the example set by Linton (1936) of defining roles in relationship to a position. Position is a collectively recognized category of persons from whom the basis for such differentiation is their common attribute, their common behavior, or the common reactions of others toward them (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Therefore, it is possible to confine the definition of role to those behaviors associated with a position and that of a position to those persons who exhibit a role. Perhaps the most common definition is that role is the set of prescriptions defining what the behavior of a position member should be, conceiving roles as "behavior referring to normative expectations associated with a position in a social system" (Allen & van de Vliert, 1984, p. 3).

After undertaking the data analysis of each kind of activity for this study Mintzberg's roles were reaffirmed, however, additional roles were added and categorized in order to accommodate academic deans. It must be noted that the new set of roles do not represent criticism of Mintzberg's theory, but rather uses it as a foundation to advance executive behavioral theory. Moreover, this view of executive roles presented in Chapter IV is one among many possible views. The delineation of these roles is a categorization of dean's work

days broken down with the use of activity analysis. Subsequently, the roles are derived from an observational study of the four academic deans.

The new set of roles includes 15 roles, which fall into four categories: interpersonal, informational, decisional, and competency-based. The four categories and 15 roles are described briefly below. The figure head role involves the handling of ceremonial and symbolic activities for the college. Leadership role involves interpersonal relationships with college personnel. The leader role speaks well to vertical or authoritative relationships within the college. However, it is the liaison role that introduces the horizontal relationship that deans development. The politician role requires the dean to shape the environment in the college and university, rather than be constrained by it.

The information consumer role involves seeking current information from various sources. In the information disseminator role the dean transmits current information to others, both inside and outside the college. The spokesperson role pertains to official statements about the college to individuals outside the college. The entrepreneur role involves the initiation of change. More specifically, it relates to the change activities undertaken to improve the college in some fashion. The disturbance handler role involves resolving conflicts between college personnel, students, departments, and outsiders as well. The manager's role pertains to decisions about how to allocate people, time, equipment, budget, and other resources to attain desired outcomes. The negotiator role involves formal negotiations and informal bargaining to attain outcomes for the dean's college.

All colleges have policies which are statements of goals and objectives. However, some colleges are more systematic with their approach to formulating policy and are very strict in the way they express and enforce them. The college's dean generally must decide whether new policies are needed or if the old ones need modification (Policy Maker). The dean is called upon to play the expert role, because various individuals inside and outside the college seek special advice simply because of the position. As a result, the dean is sought after to answer

questions others cannot answer, and solve problems others cannot solve. The dean is chosen to be the academic leader of the college. Therefore, the dean must have demonstrated by his or her actions the explanation of quality instruction, research, and public service (Scholar). The dean is not expected to be as scholarly active as he or she was before assuming the position, but some involvement in scholarly activities is still warranted. For the deans who have lived as full-time faculty members, teaching is an imbedded part of who they are (Teacher).

To support the academic executive behavioral theory presented in Chapter IV, it was necessary to rigorously describe the activities of academic deans. Four college of education deans were observed each for one week periods, and their activities are described and categorized in Chapter V. The primary focus of the chapter was to recount the activities the deans were observed performing, and secondarily offer suggestions on why these activities occurred. In order to achieve this lofty task, much data was presented. During the four weeks, 13 types of activities were categorized and a total of 959 records were collected. Therefore, tables and pie charts coupled with textual explanations was used to express the meaning of the data. Furthermore, to provide a theoretical grounding to guide the analysis of the data, the sociology of time was employed.

The sociology of time (sometimes referred to as sociology of work time) is a “framework integrating individuals’ independent work patterns and the larger social and temporal contexts” (Perlow, 1999, p. 57). Hassard (1990) proposed four main analytical dimensions to be used to classify social time: (1) the relationship between individuals and history; (2) the structure of activities; (3) values, norms, and meanings of social time; and (4) time scale. The analytical dimension used in this chapter is number two the structure of activities.

The chosen analytical dimension posits that social time is structured by referencing significant activities; therefore, time is a relationship between activities. McGrath and Kelly (1986) found that the relationship between time and activities focuses around several



parameters: the temporal flexibility of a particular activity, its elasticity, and the possibility of grouping a set of activities. Subsequently, they coined the term “pivotal activity,” which means that a sequential axis of various social times is determined by the activities. Simply put, activities are acceptable variables for studying the use of time. Hence, the sociology of time was an excellent theoretical framework to help analyze the chronology record data.

The four academic deans were observed utilizing the chronology record previously described in Chapter III. The chronology record was used to note all the activities of each dean during the course of the work day. Therefore, the pattern and nature of the deans’ work day are described through the lens of the activities performed. Information such as: length of work day, scheduling of activities, time spent on activities, and the nature of activities performed was discussed in the results section of Chapter V.

All statistics were computed using the program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A data base was created with 959 cases of activities and ten variables which best captured the data (i.e., dean, day, activity, location, initiate, duration, nature, people, gender, and tenure). The variables were explained in detail. Descriptive statistics (means, percentages, and sums) were used to examine the extent the activities performed by the deans relate to the other activities, and to the work day. Separate analyses of variances (ANOVA) were used to examine differences in the activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on gender (independent variable). Analyses of variances were also used to examine differences in activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on length of employment (independent variable).

The separate analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests used to examine the differences in the activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on gender (independent variable) reflect that there were no significance differences in the activities performed by the deans based on gender. It must be noted that there is not a statistic for personal appointments because only the female deans in this study had personal appointments; however, this occurrence is believed

to be an anomaly due to the weeks of observation. Also, the analysis of variance tests used to examine differences in activities performed and duration (dependent variables) based on length of employment (independent variable) reflect that there were no significant differences in the activities performed by the deans based on length of employment. These findings suggest that regardless of your gender and length of employment the dean's job has the same requirements for all incumbents. Moreover, the nature of the dean's position drives its incumbents to participate in similar activities.

### Conclusions and Implications

The overarching findings from both sets of data demonstrate that academic deans adhere closely to Mintzberg's executive behavioral theory. Moreover, roles were added and modified to accommodate executives in an academic setting. Therefore, the study found academic deans to act very similar to their corporate counterparts. This phenomenon is best captured by stating that incumbents of academic dean positions have dualistic careers. The incumbent enters the academy to move up the professorate ranks. This undertaking is a serious task to achieve by any standards. However, prior to becoming dean, the incumbent had to master the activities associated with the competency-based roles. After assuming the deanship, the other three categories (interpersonal, informational, and decisional) were immediately needed to function in the position. Ultimately, the dean became an executive over night, this occurrence reinforces the "changing careers" section in the literature review of Chapter II.

#### Implications for Deans

There are a number of implications for deans and aspiring deans that need to be noted. First, both sets of data clearly show that executive skills are needed. Therefore, it would be wise for incumbents and aspiring deans to develop executive skills. One approach would be to read literature that identifies and demonstrates executive skills. Second, while in or before assuming the deanship one should seek and develop an understanding of what will be required of them in the position. One should be very clear that they will engage in activities for which

they have no direct training. Third, life as they knew it before assuming the deanship will never be the same. In many respects they are really changing careers. The dualism represented in the academic executive behavioral theory of Chapter IV is a pictorial representation of the dean's life. The behavior of the deans are represented by four categories (interpersonal, informational, decisional, and competency-based). The dualism is represented in the three-to-one split (see Figure 23). Deans will have to accept that the three categories of executive-type skills will overbear the one category of activities that they were familiar with their whole faculty career (competency-based). Simply put, the activities of the three categories will consume far more of the deans' behavior than the one. Deans that will be successful, will have mentally made this transition.

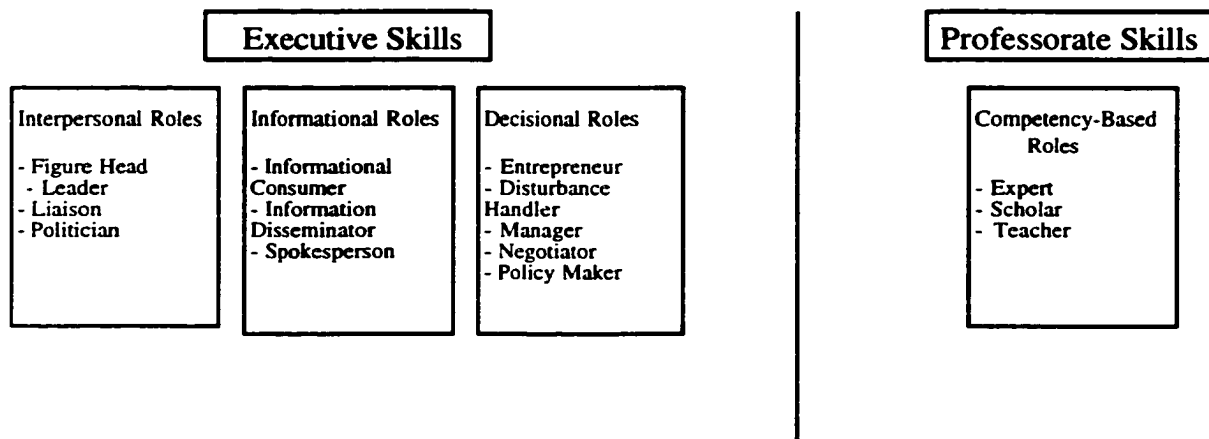


Figure 23. The Dualism of the Deanship

#### Implications for Colleges at Education

Colleges of education through their search committees should keep in mind several things when hiring a dean. The committee should look for demonstrated abilities with executive behavior; other administrative positions may serve as a good indication. Secondly, the most prolific scholar may or may not make the best dean. Several questions come to mind about this philosophy. Why would the college of education take a prolific scholar out of his or her

element, to place him or her in foreign territory. One of two things will happen: (1) the prolific scholar will step up to the challenge and be successful, or (2) the prolific scholar will ruin all advancements previously made because he or she was not prepared for the position and his or her scholarship will suffer while in the position. The latter situation creates a lose-lose situation. The historical practices of hiring deans have not necessarily been the “best practices.”

### Implications for Academe

Initial and continuous training is needed for academic deans. There are two possible ways to achieve this goal. One is to borrow from the K-12 principalship certification concept, which would require certification in the deanship in order to be considered for the position. Two would be to offer a degree in academic administration; the degree could be placed in an education leadership and policy studies departments. Degree training is available for student affairs, why not offer a concentration in academic affairs?

### Future Research

The study has five areas for which it could be extended in the future. First, use the Extended Hours Chronology Record to explore extensively the evening and weekend work of deans to provide a wholistic picture. Second, to test the academic executive behavioral theory with other academic leadership positions (i.e., department chairs, provosts, and presidents). Third, perform secondary analysis with the existing collected data with an emphasis on the person in the position. Explore the leadership styles and approaches to yield multiple views on how to approach the deanship. Fourth, examine deans of private universities to determine whether there is a difference in behavior. Lastly, determine whether the academic executive behavioral theory holds true for deans at historically black colleges and universities, Hispanic serving institutions, tribal colleges, and women’s colleges.

APPENDIX A  
SUBJECT REQUEST LETTER

Dear Participant:

I know that you are a busy academic administrative professional, but I would like to ask you to share a little of your time with me. I am a Ph.D candidate in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Iowa State University and my major professors are: Dr. Daniel C. Robinson, University Professor and Dr. Walter H. Gmelch, Dean of the College of Education. Currently, I am conducting my doctoral studies research on academic deans. The resulting findings will be valuable to the academic community.

The purpose of this study is to explore the everyday activities of deans in the college or school of education at research institutions. Data for this research will be collected through structured and unstructured observations of each dean for a period of one week, personal interviews, and document analysis. Your name comes highly recommended from your colleagues as a potential candidate. Participants will be treated in accordance with the "Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct" (American Psychological Association, 1992). No participant names or other identifying characteristics will be used in reporting the results of the study. Pseudonyms will be used for discussion purposes.

I am excited about conducting research on this topic and would appreciate your willingness to be involved in this study. Please indicate your willingness to participate in this research project by responding before or on September 1, 1999. If you accept, a time will be arranged for the observation, and information will be requested on you and your college or school. A follow-up call can be arranged to clarify any questions upon your request. If you have any questions or concerns before making your decision, I can be reached at 515-294-8067 or by e-mail at [jacksjf@iastate.edu](mailto:jacksjf@iastate.edu). Otherwise, your signature below is acknowledgement that you have consented to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Jerlando F. L. Jackson

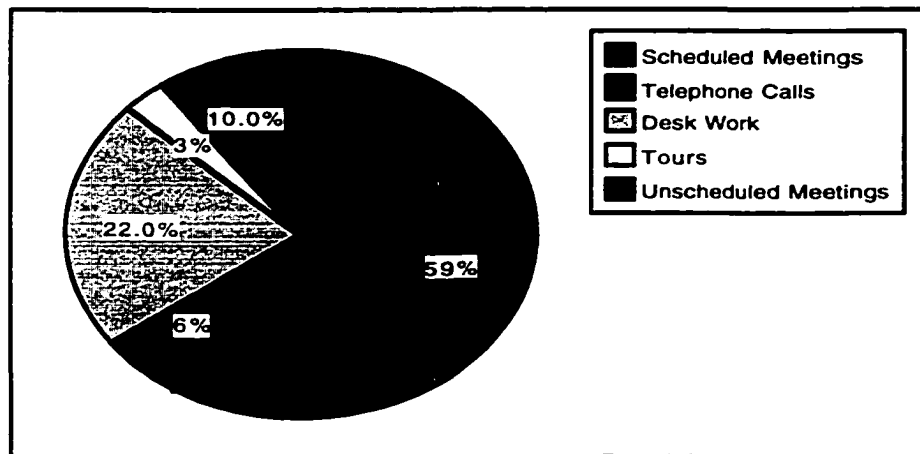
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Signature of Research Participant

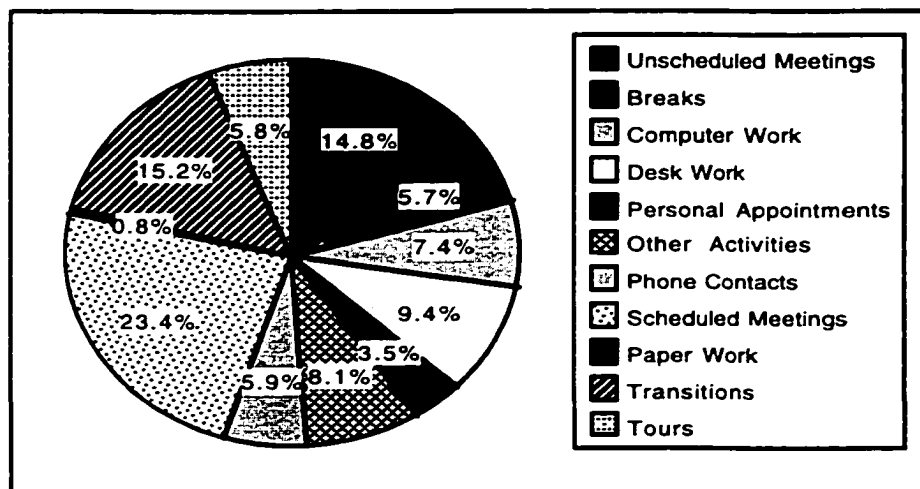
Date

## APPENDIX B

## JACKSON-MINTZBERG DISTRIBUTION COMPARISON



Mintzberg's Distribution



Jackson's Distribution

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